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BASIC IDEAS OF A SCIENTIFIC PEDAGOGY.

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THE potential solidarity of the human race and its evolution, are the leading ideas which lie at the bottom of a great movement of thought which has now become conspicuous in the field of education.

The idea of social solidarity, sometimes expressed as the organic conception of society, began to take formal shape in the writings of the economists and philosophers of the latter half of the eighteenth century. In one of Pascal's *Penseés*, he had expressed the opinion that "the entire succession of men through the whole course of ages must be regarded as one man always living and incessantly learning," (1) and this seems to have been a favorite idea of those writers who began in the century following to give attention to social and industrial development. Condorcet, as early as 1735, likened the development of society to that of the individual. Speaking of the development of the individual faculties, he says, "If one considers this same development in its results relatively to the mass of individuals who co-exist at the same time and upon a given space; and if one follows this development from generation to generation, it will present the outline of the progress of the human spirit." "This progress," he continues, "is subject to the same general laws which are observed in the individual development of our faculties, for it is the result of this development in a great number of individuals considered at the

(1.) Pascal's *Pensees*, pt. I., art. 1.

same time and united in society." His conclusion was that there is no limit to the perfectibility of society. (1) When Auguste Comte, who is usually called the founder of sociology, published his great work entitled *Philosophie Positif*, he carried out this idea, and sought to establish a true correspondence between the development of the individual organism and the social organism as a basis for the science of education. He laid down the law that "individual evolution should be in conformity to collective evolution." (2)

It would be a mistake, however, to ascribe the organic conception of society to Comte and his French predecessors alone. The Hegelian philosophy in Germany, and the Romantic movement in general, set many a scholar to work in the field of historical investigation. Hegelianism lent itself readily to the organic idea, as may be seen in the works of Bluntschli, Ahrens, Röhmer, and others who applied it in political science. Bluntschli, for example, continually speaks of the organic nature of the state, and declares that while it is an organism it is of a higher kind than those of plants and animals. It is a moral and spiritual organism, a great body which is capable of taking up into itself the feelings and thoughts of the nation, and of uttering them in laws and realizing them in acts. "The state," he says, "has its own body and spirit, its own moral qualities and character, and possesses and manifests a will of its own." (3) Prior to Bluntschli, the same conception had been applied to society by the German philosopher, Krause. This thinker regarded terrestrial humanity as only a member of universal humanity, and held that society in general as well as particular social groups, should be considered as an organism which realizes its ends better and better in taking knowledge of its social unity. Finally, we find writers like Herbart insisting that the laws of history must be sought in the development of the mental activity of the individual; and others, like Ernest de Lasaulx, maintaining that the human race must be regarded as if it were a single individual having one nature, one life, one body, one soul, one will, one reason. (4)

(1.) Condorcet, *Esquisse d'un Tableau Historique des Progres de L'esprit Humain*, pp. 18, 19.

(2.) See Fouillée, *Education from a National Standpoint*, p. 96.

(3.) Bluntschli, *Theory of the State*, Eng. trans., p. 22.

(4.) De Greef, *Le Transformisme Sociale*, p. 206, 208.

The idea thus set forth has been utilized by Spencer, Lilienfeld and Schäffle, whose works are well known to students of sociology. Spencer's celebrated essay on the Social Organism presents an analogy between society and a biological organism, and shows their resemblances and their differences. Lilienfeld conceived the analogy between the biological and the social organism to be something more than an allegorical parallel. "Man must rise to the conviction," he tells us, "that this or that social group, this or that state are really living organisms like all other organisms in nature." (1) He then proceeds to treat society as a great organism, and uses the terminology of physiology and anatomy. The same thing may be said of Schäffle's great work on the structure and life of the social body (*Bau und Leben des Socialen Körpers*).

Recently a great controversy has been carried on in regard to this organic conception of society, and much ink has been spilled. Some have contended that the idea is utterly false. Gumplowicz, an Austrian sociologist, says, for instance, that "social science can never obtain a base as real as that of natural science until the fantastic idea that society is an organism, has been thrown overboard, and all biological analogies have been cleared away." M. Tarde, the most noted sociologist of France, speaks of the organic conception as being "universally discredited." (2) In this country it has been denounced by several writers.

All sweeping criticisms of the organic conception, however, seem to be directed against the idea that society is a biological organism, and no writer of considerable reputation has identified the two. Schäffle, who is one of the writers most severely criticised, tells us again and again that society must not be considered as an organism in the biological sense. "Human society," he says, "presents no simple continuation of the phenomena of organic biology; but organic and inorganic nature begun anew in a higher order, in a spiritual combination. We must therefore treat the social body not as an animal society, and sociology not as a part of zoölogy." (3) Even Lilienfeld says that we must not identify the social organism with a plant or an animal. In a

(1.) *Gedanken uber die Socialwissenschaft der Zukunft*, vol. I., p. 27.
(2.) *Etudes de Psychologie Sociale*, p. 120.
(3.) *Bau und Leben des Socialen Korpers*, p. 828; see also pp. 8 and 9.

recent discussion of the organic theory, he says: "Is there, then, no difference between the social organism and the individual organism? Quite the contrary, the differences are important, and we have not failed to call attention to them." And again he says: "We are then far from identifying the social organism with a plant or an animal as we have been accused of doing." (1)

Notwithstanding these protests, these writers may still be considered as having carried the organic conception of society to an extreme. At all events, their use of biological analogies and nomenclature is misleading. All that is required is that society, or at all events a social group, be regarded as a unitary object undergoing development. We use the term society to denote a group of persons permanently conditioned by natural and artificial surroundings, with a high degree of interdependence, and with ideals and interests more or less common. The psychic and moral phenomena occasioned by such a group give a corresponding reality to the expression, the social mind and character. Movement in the direction of the realization of the social mind and character is progress. Education is one of the most effective factors in this movement. Its function from the social point of view is to direct and accelerate social progress.

Turning now, to the second idea underlying the present intellectual movement, namely, the idea of evolution, we find that it is centuries old. Foreshadowings of it may be found among the ancient Greeks, and a remarkably clear adumbration is presented in a poem of Lucretius (*De Rerum Natura*), who lived in the first century before Christ. Not until the eighteenth century, however, was the idea applied in such a way as greatly to influence human thought. Early in the century Benoist de Maillet, a French thinker, began to meditate upon the origin of animal forms, and evolved a theory on the transformation of species which in some respects was like the modern theory of evolution. Near the close of the century several writers, among whom were Erasmus Darwin, in England, Oken, in Switzerland, and Kant, Herder, and Goethe, in Germany, presented, more or less clearly, different phases of the evolutionary doctrine. In 1801, Lamarck, in a book, in which, by the way, the word biology was first used, set forth a

(1.) *Annales de L'Institut Internationale de Sociologie*, p. 225–227.

somewhat different theory of organic evolution, and, as Darwin has remarked, he seems to have been the first whose conclusions on the subject excited much attention. In 1802, Treviranus began a work on biology in which he advanced the idea that from simple forms of life all higher organizations have arisen by gradual development. After the manner of this development had been suggested by various writers, Darwin took it up and, as everybody knows, in his great work on the *Origin of Species*, proved to the satisfaction of the scientific world that all forms of animal and plant life are derived by descent with gradual modifications from simple forms, and by a process called natural selection.

It is to Herbert Spencer, however, that the world is chiefly indebted for the application of the theory of evolution to the development of society. After describing the evolution of an animal organism he says: "Now, just the same coalescence of like parts and separation of unlike ones — just the same increasing subdivision of function — takes place in the development of society. The earliest social organisms consist almost wholly of repetitions of one element. Every man is a warrior, hunter, fisherman, builder, agriculturist, toolmaker. Each portion of the community performs the same duties with every other portion; much as each slice of the polyp's body is alike stomach, muscle, skin and lungs. Even the chiefs in whom a tendency towards separateness of function first appears, still retain their similarity to the rest in economic respects. The next stage is distinguished by a segregation of these social units into a few distinct classes — warriors, priests and slaves. A further advance is seen in the sundering of the laborers into different castes, having special occupations, as among the Hindoos. And, without further illustration, the reader will at once perceive, that from these inferior types of society up to our own complicated and more perfect one, the progress has ever been of the same nature. While he will also perceive that this coalescence of like parts, as seen in the concentration of particular manufactures in particular districts, and this separation of agents having separate functions, as seen in the more and more minute division of labor, are still going on.

"Thus do we find, not only that the analogy between a society and a living creature is borne out to a degree quite unsuspected

by those who commonly draw it, but also that the same definition of life applies to both. This union of many men into one community — this increasing mutual dependence of units which were originally independent — this formation of a whole consisting of unlike parts — this growth of an organism, of which one portion cannot be injured without the rest feeling it — may all be generalized under the law of individuation. The development of society, as well as the development of man and the development of life generally, may be described as a tendency to individuate — *to become a thing.* And rightly interpreted, the manifold forms of progress going on around us are uniformly significant of this tendency." (1)

In this extension of the idea of evolution to society we see also the necessary employment of the organic conception. Its application to society involved a change in the methods of all the sciences engaged in the study of man. This change may be illustrated by that which has taken place in the study of psychology.

Psychology in the modern sense of the term is comparatively a new science. To be sure we have had a so-called mental philosophy since the days of Socrates and Plato. The real psychological movement began, however, with Herbart's attempt to found a psychology upon experience, metaphysics and mathematics. (2) We must come down even to the time of Weber, Fechner and Wundt to find psychology, even in Germany, established on a firm basis of fact. In England, Spencer, Bain, Lewes, Maudsley and others, all of whose writings belong to the latter half of the nineteenth century, gave form to the movement. In this country, so lately was interest in the new subject awakened that we shall not be far astray if we say that scientific psychology is a product of the last twenty-five years. The first psychological laboratory in America was established at Johns Hopkins University in 1883. The first chair of psychology alone with a laboratory was founded at the University of Pennsylvania in 1888. (3) The two leading periodicals devoted to psychological studies, the *American Journal of Psychology* and the *Psychological Review*, were founded in 1887

(1.) Quoted by Clodd, *Pioneers of Evolution*, p. 184 et seq.

(2.) *Psychologie als Wissenschaft neu gegrundet auf der Erfahrung, Metaphysik, und Mathematik*, 1824–1825.

(3.) See *Psychological Review*, vol. I., p. 363.

and 1894 respectively. These facts are sufficient, perhaps, to show how recent in this country was the birth of a really scientific psychology.

One of the early results of the psychological movement was a special interest in the development of the child. About 1880, scientific observation of child life began in this country, and rapidly spread until child study became a fad. Both child study and psychology in general began with an intensive study of the psychic life of the individual, and both revealed the necessity of associating the development of the individual with social development. Herbart himself had maintained that "psychology remains incomplete as long as it considers man only as an isolated individual." (1) Vaihinger, Ziller, and other Herbartians advanced the idea that the intellectual development of the individual summarizes the culture of humanity. This idea expanded into what has been known as the "culture epoch" theory. A brief formulation of this theory may be found in the initial number of Mind, the first English journal devoted to psychology and philosophy, and founded in 1876, in an article by Herbert Spencer on the Comparative Psychology of Man, which concludes as follows: "A right theory of mental evolution, exhibited by humanity at large, giving a key as it does to the evolution of the individual mind, must help to rationalize our perverse methods of education; and so to raise intellectual power and moral nature." Although the theory has been modified, it has done much to direct attention to the relation of education to social development, and has led to the idea, as expressed by Professor Baldwin, that "no consistent view of mental development in the individual could possibly be reached without a doctrine of the race development of consciousness. . . . The relations of individual development to race development are so intimate — the two are so identical in fact, that no topic in one can be treated with clearness without assuming results in the other." (2)

It is thus seen that the study of individual psychology has expanded into a study of the psychological development of society or, as the new study is called, social psychology. The inadequacy

(1.) See Ribot, *German Psychology of Today*, p. 51.
(2.) Baldwin, *Mental Development in the Child and the Race*, Preface.

of individual psychology soon led the Germans to initiate a *folk-* or collective psychology the main idea of which is that the people collectively presents a *volkgeist*, which is as legitimate an object of study as the individual mind. Its problem is the phylo-genetic development of consciousness. In 1859, the same year in which the Origin of Species appeared, Waitz published his *Anthropologie der Naturvölker* in which he devotes special attention to the psychology of race development. In 1860, Lazarus and Steinthal began to publish a magazine devoted to social evolutionary studies and entitled *Zeitschrift fur Völkerpsychologie und Sprachwissenschaft.*

In the introductory article of this magazine it is said that "psychology teaches that man is throughout his being social; that he is therefore destined to a social life, because it is only in combination with his kind that he can become and accomplish what he would; and be and act as he is destined through his own being to be and act. There is really no man who has become what he is purely through himself, but only through the determining influences of the society in which he lives." Bastian had previously remarked that "psychology ought not to be limited as heretofore to individual self observation and the pathological evidence afforded by the schools and insane asylums. Man, as a political animal, attains full development only in society. Mankind, than which there is no higher concept, must be made the starting point; mankind is the unitary whole in which the individual figures as an integral part." (1) These ideas are the basic concepts of a new psychological discipline destined to achieve great progress in the future.

We see, then, that under the influence of the evolutionary theory psychology has progressively revealed the unity of the race. The individual is no longer conceived as a detached phenomenon to be studied independently of social development. The influence of this new conception has already been felt in education, but it must still more clearly be recognized that pedagogy can never become a science until it is based on the study of individual development on the one hand and social development on the other. We have no such pedagogy today. There are inklings of it, but

(1.) Quoted by Gumplowicz. *Outlines of Sociology*, English translation, p. 37.

it is yet to be developed. "A reference to social pedagogy," says Baerenbach, "is sometimes found in the most important works on ethics, as well as in those on philosophical pedagogy. But social pedagogy itself as a discipline and as an art is today not much more than a pious wish, a theoretical ideal, for the realization of which we find in the literature of the social sciences much material, and in life many detached suggestions, but in nowise coherent beginnings."

"But it is due to the efforts and to the services of the active spirits in other departments of thought that, by means of the results arrived at in social scientific investigations, a noticeable beginning on social and ethical labor has been made, and a social pedagogy — at least as a theoretical and practical ideal — as a great scientific and ethical task of the future has been recognized, a task whose accomplishment is dependent upon the advance of knowledge in other departments, and which promises to guarantee to future generations the inviolable possession of a clearer social consciousness of right and duty." (1)

The first demand of a scientific social pedagogy is a formulation of the real purpose of education. The modern educational aim is a reflex of the individualistic philosophy of the past century, and is usually expressed in terms of the individual. True appreciation of the individual's relationship, now made possible by the development of psychology, demands a restatement of the aim of education in such a manner that the emphasis will be placed upon the interests of society. The immediate aim of the school should be expressed as socialization. The socialization of the individual requires, in addition to the maximum development of the physical and mental powers, the highest possible development of social good will, social intelligence and social habits. The development of social good will and social intelligence implies a curriculum consciously adapted to that purpose. The approach toward an ideal curriculum involves an increasing demand upon the material of the social sciences. As to the formation of social habits, it implies the organization of the school so as to provide the greatest possible number of opportunities for social action. "Upon the ethical side, the tragic weakness

(1.) *Die Socialwissenschaften*, p. 280.

of the present school," says Professor Dewey, "is that it endeavors to prepare future members of the social order in a medium in which conditions of the social spirit are eminently wanting." (1)

Education has always been the attempt on the part of an external authority to develop individual personalities in the direction of a preconceived and variable good which always finds its explanation in terms of the educating power. In a democracy this power is, or ought to be, the people. The good, therefore, that determines the character of education should be the highest conceivable social ideal. Successful education depends upon the clearness with which this good is perceived, and the successful application of the available means of realizing it through the efficiency of the individual.

Education is thus seen to be a factor in individual and social evolution. In considering it as such, however, we are met by the theory of the Neo-Darwinians, who maintain that natural selection is the only factor in the development of the species. If characteristics acquired during the life of the individual are not inherited, as Weismann and his followers maintain, then no matter what education may do for one generation, the following generation must begin at the same starting point, or with only such an advance as may be due to the operation of the principle of natural selection. It is commonly thought that the effects of use and disuse, individual aptitudes, virtues and vices acquired by the parent during his or her life time, are inherited by the children. But the doctrine of Weismann and Galton negatives this idea and leave education powerless to aid evolution, which, according to them, depends always upon heredity.

This is not the place to enter upon a discussion of this question. It belongs to biology, and we must await the conclusion which may finally be supported by a consensus of biological opinion. Moreover, it is unnecessary to assume the correctness either of the Weismannian doctrine or its opposite. For, whatever may be thought of the possibility of modifying the physical heredity of a new generation, all will admit the possibility of inducing transformation by changing the character of the social environment. "If we cannot trust to acquired habits being transmitted merely

(1.) Dewey, *The School and Society*, p. 28.

by descent," says Ritchie, "we have additional reason for surrounding each successive generation of individuals, from their youth upwards, with institutions and laws and customs that will promote good and hinder bad tendencies. The moral significance of the organization of society can hardly be overestimated." (1) Now, the influence of education upon the social environment cannot be doubted. Environment determines selection. Consequently education, even if it cannot directly improve the individual type can effect the choices, that is, the character, of the type, and to a considerable extent give direction to the selective process of nature.

In considering education as an evolutionary factor it becomes necessary to emphasize the subordinate relation of the individual to society, and consequently a similar subordination of the individual or psychological aim in teaching to the social aim. Between individual and social interests there is a fundamental antithesis. This antithesis is like that in the biological world between feeling and function. Of the many individual powers, and of the infinitude of possible pleasurable individual activities some are helpful, some harmful, to society. The task of education is to aid the social evolutionary process in eliminating the harmful interests and tendencies, and to stimulate and develop the activities and powers which are of special advantage to society at the given stage of its development. The completion of the individual is from one point of view necessarily limited by his social life. It must be sacrificed in the interests of society, not primarily because his own highest good demands it, but because society, the external educating power and agency, believes such a sacrifice essential to its own preservation and improvement.

This antithesis between individual and social interests is an actual but not an ideal one. The development of the individual and of society should lead to a harmony of interests. In such harmony alone is there perfect individual freedom. The school must synthesize the life of the individual and the social life. It must cultivate the disposition and the habit of striving for the attainment of social ends. This means that the school must be consciously organized and directed to promote the spirit of social

(1.) *Darwinism and Politics*, p. 54.

service. Inasmuch as social service leads, from well known psychological laws, to the identification of the interests of the individual with those of society, social service, or assistance in the realization of an ideal humanity, is in the highest degree rational. It is the pathway to individual freedom.

There have been a few writers who have treated education from a standpoint similar to the one here suggested. Guyau in his *Education and Heredity* maintained that "the whole system of education should be orientated with reference to the maintenance and progress of the race," and expressed the opinion that it "has been far too much looked upon as the art of bringing up the individual — apart from the family and the race." He defined pedagogy as the "art of adapting new generations to those conditions of life which are the most intensive, extensive, and fruitful for the individual and the species," and declared that the problem of education is to modify the heredity of one generation to the advantage of another.

Alfred Fouillée, in his book on *Education from a National Standpoint*, takes a somewhat narrower view than Guyau, as may be inferred from the title. Nevertheless, he agrees with Guyau in his main proposition, for, in commenting on the statement by the latter of the educational problem he says: "It is nothing less than this; it is not merely a matter of the instruction of individuals, but of the preservation and improvement of the race. Education must therefore be based upon the physiological and morphological laws of the culture of races. These laws are not considered unworthy of attention when we are dealing with the breeding of animals; but they are set aside or forgotten when we are dealing with man, 'as if the education of humanity only considered individuals.' The ethnical is the true point of view."

In our own country we have a treatment of education from the social standpoint by Professor Lester F. Ward. Professor Ward's views on education are not as familiar to educators as they deserve to be. This is probably due to the fact that they are embodied in two large works on Sociology. The closing chapter of Professor Ward's *Dynamic Sociology*, including about a hundred pages, is wholly devoted to the treatment of education as a means to social progress. Professor Ward regards education as the initial factor

in the evolution of humanity, and asserts that the educational question is, "whether the social system shall always be left to nature, always be genetic and spontaneous, and be allowed to drift listlessly on, entrusted to the by no means always progressive influences which have developed it to its present condition, or whether it shall be regarded as a proper subject of art, treated as other natural products have been treated by human intelligence and made as much superior to nature, in this only proper sense of the word, as other artificial products are superior to natural ones."

HINTS AT A COURSE OF STUDY FOR NORMAL SCHOOLS.

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IT will be impossible, within the limits of so brief a paper as this, to give the details, or even to outline with any completeness the main features of a course of study for Normal schools. The attempt will be made, however, to suggest a few general principles which should be observed in determining the sequence of both the professional and academic studies and the relationship which should exist between them. It is possible to be more specific in prescribing the professional studies than the pure "culture" or "content" subjects, for the reason that the former are comparatively constant while the latter are determined largely by local conditions.

Though few states are yet ready for such a condition, the requirements for admission to the Normal school should be a good four years' high school course or its equivalent. Massachusetts seems to be the only state thus far demanding such qualifications of all students.

This should include at least one year each of physics, chemistry and biology, two years of English and a sufficient knowledge of general history, algebra and geometry. With this foundation, a course of three years in a Normal school should make a teacher of a candidate if anything could.

But more important, even than the intellectual qualifications is the physical health of the student. Before being admitted to the school every candidate should be required to pass a rigid physical examination, present a health record of his life, and furnish satisfactory evidence that his immediate ancestry was free from physical and mental disease of a hereditary nature. The place for "weeding out" candidates who are mentally or physically unfit for teachers should be at the beginning of the training course and not at its end, as is now the case in most state institutions.

THE NON-PROFESSIONAL STUDIES.

As to subject matter, or so called content studies, there is great difference of opinion among trainers of teachers. Many maintain that a Normal school should concern itself with only professional studies, leaving the whole question of knowledge and culture with the secondary schools; others agree with Dr. Harris that the professional work cannot be separated from the studies to be taught, and that, therefore, both elements should have a place in the training course. This paper urges the latter opinion. Just what non-professional studies should be given must be determined by the preparation of the students and the local conditions to be met. They should comprise the two general classes of

(1) advanced work, and

(2) reviews of branches to be taught.

The advanced work should also fall under a twofold division; viz: —

(1) that which continues and throws light upon the elementary studies, and

(2) that which contributes to general culture.

Those advanced studies which are pursued mainly that they may throw new light and deeper meaning on the elementary branches should, wherever possible, precede the review of these elementary subjects. The general culture studies may come later in the course, or at whatever points they seem to fall into the most natural relations with the other subjects. This does *not* mean that some of the advanced work would have no relation whatever to the teaching of the "common branches," but that some of it would have a much less direct bearing than other

parts, and that it might, therefore, follow those branches. To illustrate; — sociology, physiography, geology, and advanced history should precede the review of, and special methods in, history and geography; zoölogy and botany should precede methods in elementary science; chemistry and physiology should be studied before instruction in cooking; etc. But certain phases of literature, of art, of music, and even of history and science have a more general bearing and may therefore be placed where most convenient in the program.

The reviews of elementary subjects should be carried on mainly with the view

(1) of discovering the central principles on which they are based,

(2) of bringing out the relation and interdependence of the various parts, and the relation of the whole to other subjects, and

(3) of deriving the best methods of instruction based

(*a*) on a knowledge of mental development, and

(*b*) on the relations of subject matter.

In general, the group of non-professional studies should be pursued with the threefold aim of

(1) extending the knowledge and culture of the students,

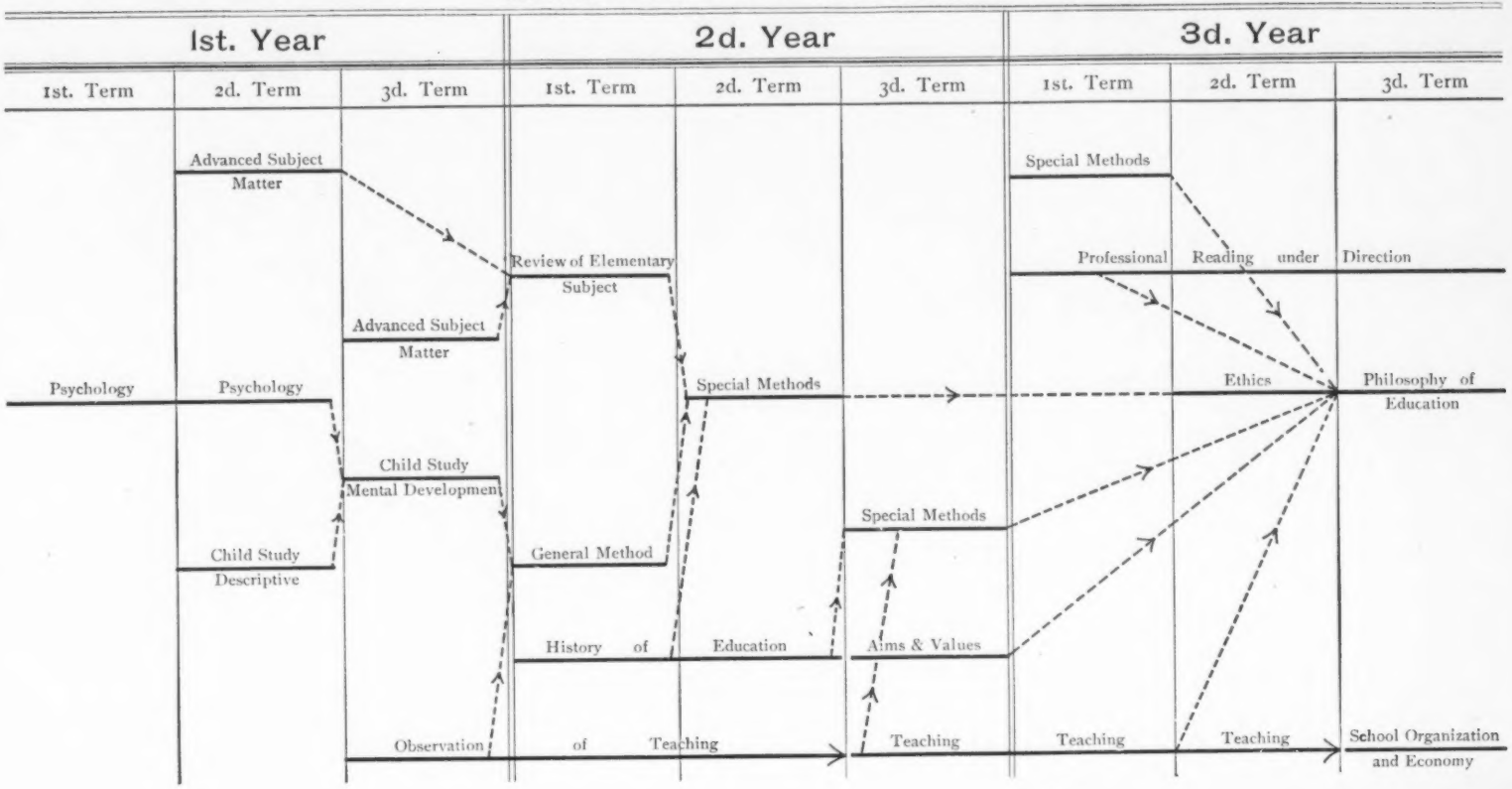
(2) insuring in them the permanence of studious habits, and

(3) giving light and significance to their teaching, through the clearer analysis and deeper meaning brought to the subjects of instruction.

THE PROFESSIONAL STUDIES.

The professional studies necessary in the training of teachers have been pretty generally agreed upon, though their order of presentation still furnishes a subject for controversy. In an accompanying diagram an attempt is made to show what is believed to be the proper order and true relations of the various professional elements in the course of study. Diagrams are always ambiguous and often misleading, but it is hoped that the following explanations will make the meaning clear:

Diagram Showing the Order and Relation of the Professional Branches of the Course of Study to Each Other and to the Advanced and Reviewed Subject Matter.



Nine years' experience in Normal school work, both as teacher and pupil, has convinced the writer that the superficiality and mechanical work of which Normal-trained teachers are accused — in so far as they are independent of limited scholarship — are due to excessive drill in technical methods before a sufficient knowledge of psychology and child nature is gained. Speaking from his own experience, it was with the greatest difficulty, and only by persistent effort, that he was able to break away from the formal, mechanical application of methods blindly acquired, after he had learned their psychological foundations.

For this reason it seems wise to begin our course with an elementary study of those topics of psychology which have the most direct bearing on education; e. g., the relation of physical and psychical processes, "learned and unlearned reactions," habit, attention, imagery, memory, the feelings, etc. The instruction would be made as concrete as possible, and the facts constantly verified by reference to experience, and would continue for two terms.

With the second term of the first year, the subject of child study would naturally follow. The first term's work would include a history of the movement, a discussion of the different methods used and a comparison of their results, a consideration of its relation to other lines of psychological study, and some practical concrete work in the study of children from the physical side — using some such outlines as those of Dr. Warner. The second term's work would combine the knowledge gained from psychology proper, and from the first term of child study, and proceed along the line of mental development, studying the characteristics of each stage of growth, and endeavoring to find out their significance in education. While, in the outline, formal child study ends with the first year, it would, in reality, be continued informally throughout the whole course in connection with observation and teaching in the practice school, as well as in general and special methods. Observation of teaching in the model school would be begun with the third term of the first year and would be continued for three terms. This observation should include much more than the term suggests. Throughout, it should be a period of the most valuable, practical child study; it should furnish concrete material for the work in general and special meth-

ods; it should make the student familiar with the various duties of school government, ventilation, instruction and supervision of study; it should assist the young teacher in discovering to what grade or kind of work she is best adapted; and, in fine, serve to make one thoroughly at home in the schoolroom and familiar with all that goes on therein.

With the beginning of the second year, general method would be taken up, drawing on the results of psychology, child study, and observation of teaching for its material, and attempting to formulate from this material certain general principles of procedure appropriate to instruction in all subjects. This subject should continue at least one term — longer if necessary.

History of Education is also begun with the second year and continued for two terms. The development of educational theories in Europe is studied throughout the first term, while the second is chiefly devoted to American education and educators, including the problems now being worked upon. Time would be taken during the course to make a thorough study of one or two educational classics, or the work of some important reformer or the development of some great movement.

The students should now have a sufficient equipment to begin the study of special methods without danger of getting merely mechanical devices. This subject is placed in the second term of the second year and continued for three terms. As will be seen in the diagram, advanced subject matter, reviews, general method, observation, and history of education all contribute to the formation of special methods; and after teaching is begun it becomes the most important field of all for the working out of methods and testing those which have been derived from other sources. In most of the subjects the special methods can be worked out in connection with the review of the subject, thus not necessitating a duplication of work. It is hardly necessary to add that too much stress has heretofore been placed on methods as such.

A study of educational aims and values is begun with the third term of the second year and is made to throw some light on such special methods as may be studied at that time or later.

Teaching also begins with this term, and should continue one year. In most practice schools at the present time, student teachers have charge of a class for but one period a day throughout

the time of their training. A few schools, however, have gotten beyond this primitive stage and require consecutive teaching throughout the whole day for a period varying from six to twenty weeks. If conditions would allow, I should have the candidates teach one period daily for two terms under close supervision, and would then give them sole charge of a grade which they should organize, govern, and instruct as their own school for a third term. The aim in the first period would be to master the "technique" of the recitation and gain ease and confidence before a class; the aim of the second period would be to learn school management and government. Here the supervision should be less severe and the student should be allowed, as the late Dr. Sheldon expressed it, "to work out his own salvation."

In the last term of the course the experience of the teaching period should be drawn upon for an inductive study of school organization and economy, with references and readings from standard text-books on that subject. There should be one term of elementary ethics in the last year, and all students should be required to do systematic reading of standard educational works, with written abstracts, and occasional essays on special topics, throughout the year.

All the professional studies of the course should be made to converge to the study of philosophy of education in the last term of the course. All the results of analysis throughout the course should here be brought together into a consistent unified philosophy, so that the young teachers may go out to their life-work regarding education not as made up of a series of disconnected subjects, with their equally unrelated aims and methods, but as a single unified movement, as the symmetrical development of an organism.

As to the proportion of the total work that should be professional in character, I would have about three-fifths of the time devoted to professional studies — exclusive of the term given wholly to teaching — and two-fifths given to non-professional studies. Of these latter, there are a few which have such a general and important bearing both on the character and culture of the teacher and on the efficiency of his teaching that they should be taken throughout the course. These are (1) physical culture, (2) vocal music and voice culture, (3) manual training, in its broadest sense, and (4) art.

OUTLINE FOR THE STUDY OF VIRGIL'S ÆNEID, BOOK I.

(*For Class Review.*)

MAUD ELMA KINGSLEY, EAST MACHIAS, ME.

A. PREPARATORY WORK.

I. The Author.

1. Significant events in his life.
2. Three classes of literary work.
3. Relations with Augustus: story of the Æneid and Octavia.
4. Virgil's tomb and epitaph.

II. His Era. Reign of Augustus, 44 B. C. — 17 A. D.

1. Distinguished by the most remarkable event recorded in history.
2. Civilization extended farther over the world than at any preceding period.
3. The most flourishing period of the Roman Empire as regards literature, science and philosophy.
4. Famous writers of the era.

III. The Æneid.

1. Circumstances under which it was composed.
2. Its character.
3. Purpose of the poem.

Note. — To represent a great action of the heroic age, and, at the same time, embody the most vital ideas and sentiments of the hour: — to glorify Rome and Augustus, and, at the same time, follow closely the great models of epic poetry and reproduce all their sources of interest.

4. Plan of the poem.
   a. Its plot. *Juno's efforts to hinder the settlement of Italy.*
      (1) Chief agents in the plot development, *Venus and Juno.*

(State the part played by each in Book I.)

b. Keynote of the poem, — *Tantæ molis erat Romanam condere gentem.*

c. Fundamental idea of the poem, — "the great part played by Rome in the history of the world, that part being from of old determined by divine decree and carried out through the virtue of her sons."

d. Theme of the poem, — *The idea of universal empire.*

NOTE. — The reverence for antiquity, for old customs, and for the traditions of the past, was a large element in the national sentiment and has a prominent place in the Æneid.

5. Structure of the poem.

a. In twelve books, of which the first eight are the best from a literary point of view. Of these the first six are the most widely known.

b. Synopsis of Books I. — VI.

6. Literary merits of the Æneid.

a. Beauty and majesty of verse.

b. Splendor of delineation.

c. Sustained stateliness of diction, metre and rhythm.

B. THE STORY PROPER.

I. EVENTS LEADING UP TO THE STORY.

Suggestion: — Give line reference to any of these headings referred to in Book I.

I. THE TROJAN WAR.

a. The dream of Hecuba.

b. The *Apple of Discord;* the *Judgment of Paris.*

c. Hospitality of Menelaus betrayed.

d. The gathering of the chiefs. Place of assembly, names of chiefs, the omen.

e. Second assembly at *Aulis: Iphigenia.*

f. Siege of Troy; duration, eight events of siege mentioned in Book I.

II. RESUME OF THE NARRATIVE OF THE ÆNEID.

III. The Narrative Begun.

1. Time of the action of Book I, — Seventh year after the Fall of Troy.
2. Place of action, — *Vix e conspectu Siculæ telluris.*

Note. — Chronologically the narrative of Book I. should follow III., 715.

3. Situation of affairs. The Trojan fleet has just left Drepanum, on the northwest coast of Sicily, and is headed for Italy.

IV. Its Hero.

1. His lineage.
2. His character.

Note. — The chief characteristics of Æneas seem to be pious obedience, steadfast endurance, persistent purpose, submission to the will of heaven. Later on in the story he appears selfish, mean, unmanly and heartless.

Note. — The qualities of the ideal hero — chivalry and daring courage — are necessarily absent from this hero who represents the author's religious ideal.

V. Chief Characters of Book I.

VI. Outline of the Narrative.

C. DETAILS OF THE STORY.

I. Glimpses of the Heroic Age.

1. Religion.

a. Gods: their names and attributes.

Note. — Behind the gods, Virgil recognizes a great inscrutable power which he designates as *fatum*, or, more often, *fata*. The hero of the Æneid is always an instrument in the hands of the "Fates." This fate is generally an impersonal force, but often it is represented in the persons of the three sisters — the *Parcæ* or Destinies.

(1). Life among the gods.

(2). Distinguishing marks of a goddess.

b. Sacrifices, libations, dedicatory offerings (248).

c. Omens, auspices, oracles.

2. Customs, Beliefs, Traditions, etc.

a. In relation to death and burial.
b. Books, dress, servants, amusements.
c. Drinking and eating, table furnishings, reclining at meals.
d. Ships, arms, armor.
e. Beliefs in regard to burial, natural phenomena.
f. Miscellaneous: Temple of Janus, statues of Parian marble, etc., etc.

II. Geography.

Suggestion: — Let pupils draw maps on which shall be marked each place referred to in the text. Under what circumstances is each of the following mentioned?

Troia, Latium, Roma, Samos, Karthago, Æolia, Simois, Patavus, Alba Longa, Eurota, Hebrus, Paphos, Hesperia, Tyrrhenum Æquor.

III. Allusions.

1. Stories to be learned: *Judgment of Paris, Theft of Ganymede, Slaying of Hector* (Iliad, xxii., 175–500), *Romulus and Remus, Amazons, Harpalyce, the Ransom of Hector.*
2. Identify. Give the reason for each expression.
   a. Lavinia litora, Siculum tellus, Albani patres, Æneadæ, Hectorea gens, Saturnia, Genus invisum, Reliquiæ Danaum, Litus Trinacrium, Ales Jovis, Rapidus ignis Jovis, gens togata, Genitum Maia, Veneris filius, Cythera.
3. Miscellaneous allusions.

IV. Pictures and Scenes from the Poem.

1. Æolus in Celsa Arce.
2. The Storm.
3. Neptune in his Chariot.
4. Home of the Nymphs.
5. The Landing of the Trojans.
6. The Feast.
7. Preparations for the Feast.
8. Meeting between Æneas and Venus.
9. Building of Carthage.

10. Temple of Juno.
11. The Approach of the Queen.
12. The Banquet.

V. FIGURES OF SPEECH.

D. SYNTAX, PROSODY, ETC.

I. PECULIAR GRAMMATICAL CONSTRUCTIONS: *conderet, linquant*, 517, *Saturnia*, 23, *Achilli*, 30, *me*, 37, *curru*, 156, *accestis*, 201, *Bacchi*, 215, *metu*, 257, *tibi*, 258, *Iulo*, 267, *In melius*, 281, *genu*, 320, *victu*, 445, *ferat* and *ducat*, 645.

II. PASSAGES OF SPECIAL SIGNIFICANCE. *Tyrios bilingues, arma*, 1, *fuit*, 2, *volvere*, 22, *atque*, 30, *Laeti*, 35, *sceptra*, 57, *stagna*, 126, *accingunt*, 210, *compostus*, 249, *volvens*, 262, *versa*, 478.

III. SIGNIFICANT EPITHETS.

IV. PURELY POETICAL CONSTRUCTIONS. (Change to prose form.) *Late regem, alta mente, dedit mulcere, a vertice, imbrem*, 123, *bina*, 313, *tulit sese obvia, line*, 319, *ante alios, strata viarum.*

V. VARIATIONS IN METRE. Lines 16, 73, 256, 405, 617, 332, 333, 308, 448, 449.

NOTE. — In line 186, note the array of spondees, suggesting the peaceful herd feeding lazily through the valley. Contrast IV. 155.

E. POINTS TO BE NOTED.

1. In this book the interest centers around three episodes: *the storm, the prophecy of Jove, the building of Carthage.*
2. Juno's ambition for Carthage.
3. Different names by which the Trojans and Greeks are designated.
4. Line 158 marks *twelfth* landing place. Name the others.
5. Jupiter's prophecy.
6. *Dux femina facti.* This motto was placed upon the medals struck off in 1588, in honor of Elizabeth's victories over the Armada.
7. *Pius*, acting according to duty to gods, parents and country.

8. To what circumstance does *quo numine* refer?
9. Reconcile "*primus*" 2, with line 242.
10. Differentiate the two degrees of feeling expressed by *numen laeso* and *quidve dolens*.
11. In line 13, to what does *longe* refer?
12. Why was Troy *genus invisum?*
13. *Maria omnia circum* means what?
14. Note the beautiful image in 68; in 374; in *aspirans*, 694.
15. What legend is suggested by line 78?
16. 92-93. Of what was Æneas afraid?
17. How did it happen that the Trojan shields floated?
18. 227. Significance of *curas?*
19. 228. Venus had been *tristis* since the downfall of Troy. She was now *tristior* at the idea of the danger to which her son was exposed.
20. *Ob Italiam*, Significance?
21. In 286 the reference is to Augustus, not Julius Cæsar.
22. Why *soror Phœbi?*
23. State the three different points of view in which the omen of the swans appears to Æneas. Significance of each.
24. Note the force of the sudden apostrophe in 555.

VI. Answer in Latin.

1. Give the situation of Carthage. Characterize Carthage.
2. Where is the Trojan fleet when the storm overtakes it?
3. What three reasons had Juno for keeping the Trojans from Italy?
4. Describe the punishment of *Ajax*.
5. Characterize *Æolia*.
6. What did *Juno* ask of *Æolus?*
7. Describe the *Arae* of line 109.
8. Reproduce *Neptune's* rebuke to the winds.
9. Reproduce Æneas's address to his followers.
10. State the extent of Cæsar's power.
11. Why is *Mercury* sent to Carthage?

12. Describe Mercury's journey.
13. Describe the appearance of *Venus*.
14. Tell the story of *Dido*.
15. How does Æneas identify himself?
16. Give *Ilioneus'* description of Italy; his characterization of Italy.
17. On what errand does *Æneas* send *Achates?*
18. Enumerate the gifts brought by *Ascanius*.

HOPE'S MISSION.

MARTHA SHEPARD LIPPINCOTT, MOORESTOWN, N. J.

Sweet hope, thou angel beckoning on,
To teach our weary souls to rest
Within a haven of sweet bliss
While earthly cares our faith shall test.
Hope is the messenger of faith,
Which teaches us in trust to wait
Until God's will hath been revealed
To show us what shall be our fate.

'Tis the consoler of the heart,
A great physician near at hand;
When trials come to overwhelm,
And we their weight can scarcely stand;
Hope lifts us in her restful arms,
And her sweet consolation lends,
Till happiness shall reign again,
And sorrow into gladness blends.

A SCHOOL GAME FOR GIRLS.

BY STUART H. ROWE, PH. D., NEW HAVEN, CONN.

EDUCATORS and teachers have for a long time been looking for a game that could be played by girls, and would take them outdoors. Of the various games possible, basket ball has been, perhaps, the most popular, but it is generally admitted that as usually played in the East, it is too rough. Moreover, it

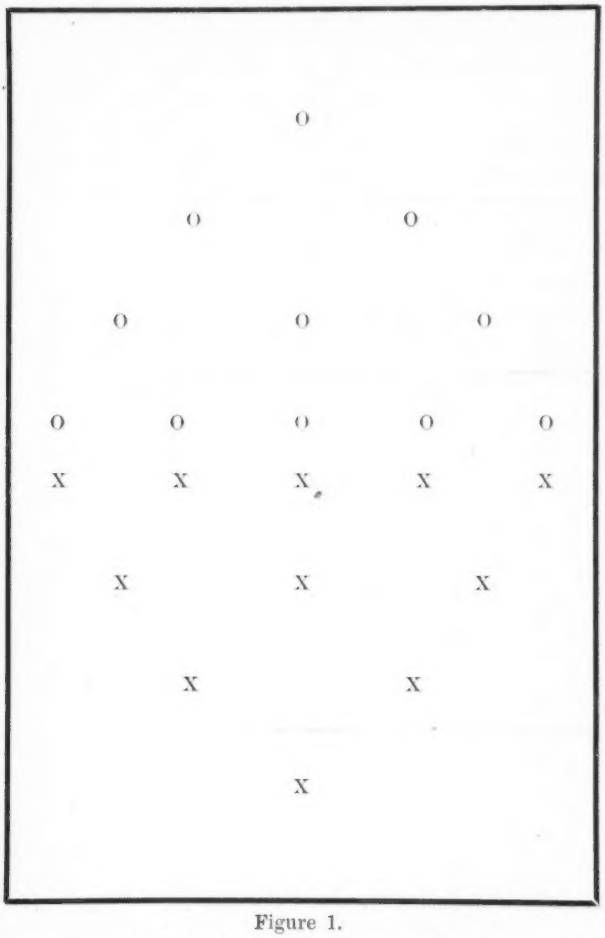


Figure 1.

Diagram of field with sides at beginning of a game. O's stand for one side; X's for the other.

requires a special costume. Tennis is too violent for most girls, and besides, not more than four can play at once. In the case of golf the field must be so large that supervision and chaperonage become difficult, and moreover, only a limited number can play. In some places, more particularly in girls' private schools, baseball has been taken up, but the game is robbed of many of its interesting features by the general lack of previous training.

There has been need for a long time of a game lending itself to scientific and expert treatment, which a comparatively large number of girls could play and be under the eye of a teacher. Of such games the only one of which I know is the new one called English Field Hockey, or Field Hockey, or Girls' Field Hockey. In this game there are eleven on a side, making twenty-two players in a full game. (See figure 1.) The players have a special stick, which is made for the purpose, and special ball, though an ordi-

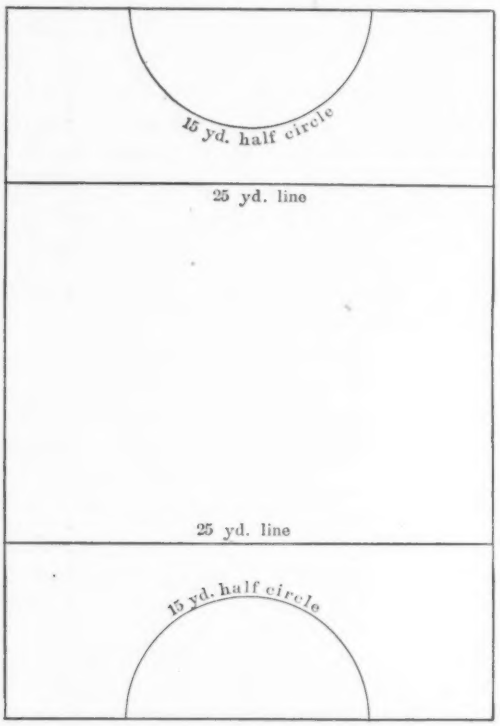


Figure 2.
Proportions should make field 100 yards long. This from position of 25 yard line could not be 75.

nary base ball and the ordinary polo or hockey stick may be used where no attempt is made to play according to the strictest interpretation of the rules and regulations of the game.

Field Hockey is a kind of cross between football and Ice Hockey, or Canadian Hockey. As in football, there are eleven players on each side. The field (see figure 2) is almost the shape of the ordinary football field, being one hundred yards long and from fifty to seventy-five yards wide. The twenty-five yard line is also used, as in football, twenty-five yards from each end of this oblong, and balls knocked over the end lines and not between the goal posts by the opponent of the side defending that line are brought back to the twenty-five yard line. Like football, too, there is a formation, first, of what corresponds to a rush line of five players; second, there are what might be called three quarter backs, then two half backs and a full back, though these terms are not used in the game, the players being called forwards, half backs, backs and goal tender. On each end of the field there are goal posts, twelve feet apart. As in football and hockey, the object is to get the ball between the goal posts of the opposing side. Unlike football and more like hockey, is the restriction on the players as to the territory which they occupy. Whereas in football a player may defend his goal or play for his side on any part of the field, the Field Hockey player must be very careful to keep within the limits assigned to her by

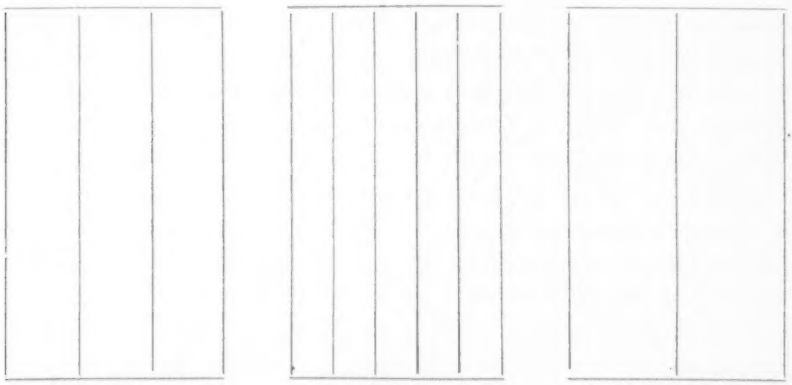


Fig. 4. Fig. 3. Fig. 5.

Field showing strips in which each forward and her opponent must keep.

her position. For example, each of the five forwards has a strip of the field, running lengthwise with it, which is from ten to fifteen yards wide, and she must not play outside of that strip. (See figure 3.) The half backs each have a strip nearly twice as wide in which to play, the three of them covering the whole field, but no one of them is to play in another's strip. (See figure 4.) The backs have the whole field to play in, each keeping to her own side, while the goal tender is supposed to protect her goal at all hazards. (See figure 5.)

It might seem that the game would be somewhat rough, but this element is obviated by wise rules, such as the following: —

First, no back-hand strokes with the clubs are allowed; that is, the ball must be hit from the right toward the left, and not the reverse; nor is the club to be raised higher than the shoulder either before or after the ball is struck.

Second, no one may run in front of another so as to touch her. No pushing nor pulling nor roughness of any description is allowed. In the main the formation with which the game is started is supposed to be maintained throughout the game, each one having a certain territory, those farthest back simply passing the ball up to those in front of them, and so on. Consequently the game admits of a great deal of scientific play in passing the ball from one to the other, right and left and front. Of course any tendency toward a large number of players coming together, all in a jumbled scramble, to hit the ball, is made impossible by the fact that the ball is at all times in territory which does not admit of more than four or five players having a right to touch it.

The rules are enforced by an umpire whose business is to keep the players in their places, not to allow infringements of these and other rules, and when occasion demands, to bring the play to a stop by a whistle, just as is done in the case of football. All violations of these rules to avoid roughness are punished as fouls, the one guilty of making a foul giving her opponent on the other side a free strike at the ball with no other player allowed to stand within five yards of it. The forwards are in each case supposed to keep always in a line with the ball as it goes up and down the field, but always in their own strip of territory.

Stout shoes should be worn and skirts are to be at least six inches from the ground.

There are quite a number of technical rules for specific occasions, such as when a ball goes over the side lines, or is within fifteen feet of the goals, etc. Play about the goals is rather complicated and hampered by apparently unnecessary rules, but these are not essential for giving a general idea of the game, and may be easily simplified. By modifying the formation the number of players on each side may be reduced to eight, or even less, but in each case necessitating considerably more exertion than is necessary where a larger number of players is engaged in the game and also eliminating the chance for scientific play to quite a large extent. Any fairly level field of the size, or anything like the size, would be suitable if free from obstructions, such as bushes or high grass.

We have had for a number of years an athletic association of the boys in the Lovell School District of New Haven; but, though we have often wished to find a game which would be adapted to girls and would justify a similar organization for them, we never have until this year discovered any form of outdoor exercise which seemed to attract the girls with any enthusiasm at all. Some months ago, however, my attention was called to English Field Hockey which was being played by girls from the New Haven Normal School of Gymnastics, who were just learning the game under the tuition of a lady who had come from England for the purpose of introducing it in this country. Its many merits were recognized at once. It seemed to be what had been sought for some years, a game which would probably lend itself to the interests of the children, would call them outdoors, would admit of team work, thus introducing the social or higher side of games, and at the same time would admit of supervision. Accordingly the girls in the upper grades who felt that they might be interested in playing a new game in the open air were asked to meet the writer at a stated time and place.

The resulting attendance was about seventy-five per cent. of all those who had an invitation, and after the game had been roughly explained to them they were invited to go and see it in operation as played by the girls of the New Haven Normal School of Gymnastics. By the next day word was received from all of the six schools concerned that the children were very eager to form teams

and to learn the game immediately. Accordingly arrangements were made for teaching it to them and the game was inaugurated with some eight elevens to begin with. The teachers were also invited out to see it, and they also became interested and immediately began preparations to form a team of their own.

The children of other districts caught the infection, began to take up the game, and were soon followed by their teachers; so that there were already in a few weeks a large number of children and at least four organizations of teachers all enthusiastic in their praise of the game and undoubtedly others of whom I knew nothing in various parts of the city.

I merely cite this spread of interest in the game as going to show that we have in Field Hockey a game which not only fills all the requirements of a good game from the health standpoint, but will both bring the girls out of doors and be taken up with enthusiasm by them. It is a fall or winter, rather than a summer game, the exercise being rather vigorous for warm weather; but it is hoped that it may prove to be at least one factor in solving the question of furnishing exercise for girls which will be sufficiently congenial to induce them to take an active part in it at those times of the year when most girls stay in winter quarters. The banishment of the American girl from outdoor exercise and play at an early age is a vital mistake in our method and makes the development of the best physical womanhood impossible. It is believed that this new game will render valuable aid in overcoming this evil.

THE SCOPE AND METHOD OF GRAMMAR.

PROFESSOR H. J. DAVENPORT, PH. D., CHICAGO UNIVERSITY.

THE purposes for which grammar is worth while as a part of the school curriculum must in the main determine the age at which grammar is best taught. But fundamental to this is the question whether it is worth teaching at all. Doubtless correct speech deserves earnest pursuit, and no one will be found to deny the importance of language training to this end; and, to the extent, that grammar is a means to this end, no one will be heard to object to it, unless upon the ground that the results fall short of an adequate compensation for the time and effort employed.

If, however, it be admitted that grammar busies itself mostly with the analysis and classification of habits of speech already formed, and that its service in reforming habits of incorrect speech is, therefore, of minor importance, it must of necessity follow that the subject should be taught with the emphasis resting upon the disciplinary aspect, there being no sufficient reason to believe that whatever of value is in it for the purposes of correct speech may not also incidentally be attained.

And, if the educational value of grammar is conceived to be primarily of the training sort, there will also forthwith come an end to formal and memoriter methods both of teaching and of study; there will result the minimum of explanation by rule and authority and a diminished insistance upon etymology, declensions and conjugations; less talk about prepositions taking objects and more talk of nouns taking them; a forsaking of classifications by *cans* and *shoulds* and endings and arbitrary authority; an acceptance of tense as meaning time, and of mood as meaning mental attitude; and an absolute cessation of hard and fast classifications and demarkations in the determinations of parts of speech. And so one might continue,— all to the point that, if grammar is to be a developmental discipline, it must become a training in analysis, in discrimination, in generalization, and in classification; that its basis must be psychological and that its methods must be chiefly introspective. If grammar shall become all of this, and if it is

also true that there are in it other important values, it may be safely assumed that all of these will be incidentally added to it.

So far, however, as the study remains memoriter and formal in its character — a parrot-like and unintelligent and thoughtless reproduction of text-book forms and text-book dicta — it is not over much to say that it belongs nowhere in the curriculum of the schools; the child mind has already passed judgment upon it. The irksome drudgery and stupefying quality of it are attested by the attitude of every normal, active-minded pupil towards it. It can afford no play for spontaneous constructive mental activity and is rightly appreciated by the pupil as meaningless and worthless; healthy intellectual appetite will have none of it. But it is not at all clear that grammar of the abstract and psychological sort is for the twelve or thirteen year old pupil of much greater service. In fact, too little is as yet known by experiment to enable us to decide where in the grades, if anywhere, and how much in the grades, if at all, grammar can profitably be taught; but it is fairly clear that for most purposes and in most of its aspects it must be a high school subject; at all events so far as it is taught, whether in the grades or higher up, it should be taught only so far as it can be understood. (1)

Grammar may, then, be defined as the *study of the relation between thought processes and the forms of oral expression.* It is to be noted that this definition does not imply that grammar is a study of forms merely, which is etymology; or of thought processes merely, which is psychology; but a study of the relation between thought and form. It will, however, be emphasized in these pages that, for purposes of analysis and classification, form is to be approached from the point of view of thought rather than thought from form. Language precedes grammar. The grammarian analyzes and classifies language uses as he finds them. The child understands before he speaks, and speaks long before he is able to undertake an examination of his forms of speech. Peculiarities in form must find their justification ultimately in

1. Every grammatical category is produced on the basis of the psychological one . . . . . As soon as the agency of the psychological category can be recognized in the use of language it becomes a grammatical category (but the grammatical category is to some extent a petrification of the psychological, it adheres to a fixed tradition). Herman Paul, Principien der Sprachgesprische.

their thought content and be explained by it. From one point of view, therefore, grammar is a special psychology.

Psychology is, in turn, in ultimate analysis a subdivision of biology or, more correctly, a special biology. This involves of necessity no materialistic implication; evolution is in fact merely a description of the sequences in phenomena with no necessary reference to the metaphysics of causation. It is asserted merely that the growth of mind is one aspect of the growth of life and, whatever more it may possibly be, is part and parcel of biological development. Grammar, therefore, if it is to maintain in latter-day thought its claim to the position of a science, must harmonize with the fundamental conceptions of science in general and, in a degree far beyond subjects like physics or chemistry, must articulate with the broader generalizations of biological investigation. That is to say, grammar must be interpreted in the light of evolutionary principles and must be presented as illustrative of evolutionary laws.

If, then, language in its syntactical aspect is assumed to have followed laws of development either analogically or casually biological in character, the problem of the origin of the parts of speech should receive from this assumption an especial degree of illumination.

PARTS OF SPEECH.

Upon the precise nature of parts of speech the text-books upon grammar are surprisingly barren of information. Originally conceiving of the sentence as the unit of formal linguistic expression, they are content to present parts of speech as functional subdivisions of the sentence. There are, it seems, seven parts, or eight, or nine, according to the notions of expediency held by the particular grammarian in question. But why just this number? why eight against seven or nine? why not six or fifteen? If, for example, one shall say — as for his part does the present writer — that there are seven parts, why should this assertion carry conviction? It is not self-evident, and there is no magical quality in the number seven to make it cabalistically probable. Is the fact, then, somehow fixed in the constitution of things, as with the number of colors in the prism? Is there really a seven-fold nature to thought,

working out in the necessity of some kind of seven-fold division in linguistic expression? There were, it is said, seven candles upon the sacred golden candlestick; there are seven colors in the spectrum, and seven steps in the musical octave. One may, if one must, rest, in a kind of grammatical mysticism, trustfully upon the lap of things as they inexplicably are. If this is, indeed, all that we can know about it, it would have been well long since to have said this much; to know that we do not know is something. If these seven parts of speech are such by the very nature and constitution of things, if we are in the presence or one of the sacred mysteries, and there is nothing for it but to bow our heads reverently, then by all means let this fact be recognized; let the mystery be confessed and the bowing forthwith done; it is more than time. On any other terms appeal will have to be made in other directions.

Speech is the vocal communication of thought. At its simplest, then, anything in vocalization which contains a communication is speech. Therefore speech is not the sole possession of humanity; nor upon evolutionary lines of thought could it be expected to be so. The note of warning by the hen to her chickens — the rooster's announcement of a good find to his retinue of hens — the night signal for the hunt repeated among all the neighborhood dogs, are speech — but speech as yet in the undifferentiated stage — speech without parts. "It is plain that a long period of linguistic activity must have preceded before anything came into being worthy to be called a language. This holds good even if the language consists of but a couple of words. Original creation is of itself insufficient to form a language. Its product must be stored up in memory by individuals who belong to one linguistic community. True language does not exist until speech and apprehension depend upon reproduction. If this is sufficient for the recognition of the existence of a language, no doubt we must ascribe language to many beasts. It will hardly be disputed that their calls are traditional and not spontaneous. They represent a stage of development which must have been passed through by human language as well. But yet another step is necessary before such a language can come into being as we find nowadays common, among the human race. . . . . The strict characteristic

which differentiates the language of men from that of animals. . . . . consists in the collocation of several words into one sentence." (1)

Evolutionary analogies point directly to the conclusion that the various parts of speech must all trace back to one single speech function as the primary and parent form from which, by a process of differentiation and specialization, all the present established parts of speech have been developed. It is in substance upon this reasoning that the interjectional theory of the origin of speech bases its claim to acceptance. But from the very fact that the interjection is speech rather than a part of speech, it is impossible to concur in the conventional classification which makes the interjection one of the recognized parts of speech. It is not a distinct functional element in the sentence, simply because there is no sentence; the interjection is in itself the equivalent of a sentence and the substitute for it. Logically, then, it cannot be a part of speech of itself; it is not one of the subordinate interdependent functions which coöperatively unite to make a sentence.

A biological analogy will help us in our search for the primary material out of which parts of speech have been developed. The lowest forms of life are unicellular, not functionless — else there were no life,— but lacking distinct organs for separate functions and lacking as well clearly marked separations of function. The entire organism, even in multicellular forms, is all motor apparatus in one activity, all stomach for another, all breathing apparatus for another. There is a nervous apparatus for response to stimulation, but no localized responsiveness and no distinguishable nervous system. Reproduction takes place by fission. Organisms rank higher in the scale of life as there is manifested an increase of differentiation, an advancing specialization of structure, a clearer differentiation, and limitation of function, and a larger interdependence and correlation of the distributed activities. The law of development is differentiation, and the law of differentiation is interdependence. Analogies and illustrations are not lacking outside of the biological field; — in astronomy, in the slow emergence of suns and planets and satellites each with definite path and specific share in the maintenance of the stupendous mov-

(1). Paul, Sections, 284-5.

ing equilibrium; — in history, in the formation of castes and classes; — in political science, in the distribution of the primitive king-function of priest, judge, war-chief, and executive, into the various functions of parliaments, courts, field marshals and administrative bureaus. In economics, beginning with the self-sufficiency of household industries and pioneer isolation, and working out to the interdependence of each specialized laborer with all the other industrial activities of society, of manufacturing communities with agricultural communities, and of the broader trade interdependence of one nation with another.

For us, however, the application of all this is to the nature of parts of speech.

The sentence must contain as many parts of speech as there are distinct functions within in it. How many there may be of these must depend upon the nature of the thought process. Thought, as expressed through differentiated functions, requires at its simplest something to be thought about and something thought about it — substantive and predicative. There may be more than this but less than this there cannot be, else the expression becomes amorphous and interjectional. Developed expression of thought requires more than this crude equipment; the qualifications of color, shape, kind, degree, manner, press forward for expression. The third function of speech is, then, that of modification, with its correlative part of speech *the modifier*. The connective or conjunctional forms, while non-essential, must be added as an actual fourth. These four, or more accurately — these three, include not only all that is essential to articulated verbal expression, but all that is possible. If there are other so-called parts of speech they are subdivisions of these or composites of these.

We are now in a position to return to a more definite consideration of our problem of origins. Biological and evolutionary analogies would not lead us to seek the primary and parent form of expression in anything so lacking definite thought content as are most interjectional forms. The point of divergence — the process of differentiation — must have begun at a later or, more accurately, at a higher point of development, than this. Presumably the parent form contained all of the different language functions, but contained them in a formless, confused, amorphous mixture.

Our first step is the search for what we may call word protoplasm,— the primary material out of which parts of speech have come to be differentiated, because in it were present all of the different functions. (1)

A quotation from Sweet (History of Language, p. 8,) will serve us as point of departure for immediate purposes. A grammatical category "may have so vague a meaning that it is difficult or impossible to find any corresponding logical category: thus the distinction between such abstract nouns as *whiteness*, *goodness*, and the adjectives *white*, *good*, is a purely grammatical one there being no logical difference between such pairs as *white* and *whiteness*." This doctrine, however, that *white* and *whiteness* are not logically distinct really points to the fact, not that the words are not functionally different,— one used as the subject of predication, the other a modifier,— but that these functions are different aspects of the substantive function which, even in modern speech, are indistinctively demarcated, and that no violation would be done in saying *White is a color*, and no great violations in saying *The horse is whiteness*. But to say that the adjective and the substantive are differentiations of one original function is not to say that they are not now differentiated, however imperfectly.

The mistake seems to lie in the generally received notion that the adjective developes from the noun. General analogy would, as we have seen, point to the conclusion that, instead of the different parts of speech budding off from one originally clearly defined part, the process has been quite other,— a progressive differentiation from an originally undifferentiated whole. So, while it is true that noun and adjective are so closely akin that one may

1. All these different forms of physiological activity exhibited by the higher animals are found to be present in many of the unicellular organisms, and are assumed to be present in them all. For this reason the development of different capacities by different groups of cells is best regarded neither as the sudden acquisition of a new power, nor as a peculiar capacity only inherent in a particular group of elements, but as arising simply from an emphasis on one of the several powers originally common to them all . . . . . The more exclusively a cell is adapted to some particular function, the less capable it is of performing the entire series of reactions indispensable to its very existence, hence the more dependent it becomes upon its neighbors. . . . . Among all in vertebrates generally, and in many lower vertebrates also, especially when young, the regeneration of the lost part is a simple and common occurrence and can take place on a magnificent scale. . . . . The capacity for the reproduction of parts lost is much diminished in the higher vertebrates and the decrease in this power is explained by their higher specialization, or, in other words, the greater the number of generations between any group of somatic cells and the ovum from which they are derived, the less the capacity in these for regeneration." Donaldson, Growth of the Brain, 26-31 passim.

rightly say that an adjective is one aspect of the noun, it would be equally correct to say that the noun is one aspect of the adjective.

Whoever has successfully experimented in exchanging Pigeon-English with a Chinaman has journeyed a long way backward toward a point in linguistic development where the distinction between the different parts of speech is near to disappearance. In truth, the Chinese way of getting at things is especially instructive for our purposes. Language exhibits the integrative process throughout all grammatical development. "The lowest kinds of human speech, having merely nouns and verbs without inflections to them, manifestly permit no such close union of the proposition as results when the relations are marked either by inflections or by connective words. Such speech is necessarily what we significantly call 'incoherent.' . . . . If, instead of saying *I go to London, Figs come from Turkey, The sun shines through the air*, we said: *I go end London, Figs come origin Turkey, The sun shines passage air*, we should discourse after the manner of the Chinese." (1) "Apart from their grammatical context, Chinese words can only be classed as substance words and phenomenon words — 'dead words' and 'living words,' as the Chinese grammarians repeatedly call them, and so on. If a substance word is put before another substance word . . . . it becomes an adjunct word; and further than this we cannot go in our grammatical analysis of Chinese." (2) "*Jin sin pen fen*, literally, *man nature root good* equals *The nature of man is radically good;* and to show *man* more clearly as adjunct to nature, that is, to show that *jin* modifies *sin*, it might be written *jin ci sin pen fen*." (3) In any linguistic question the authority of Spencer is clearly second to that of Sweet. It is worth while to note that Spencer finds something like two parts in the Chinese speech; it is indeed hard for us to realize the possibility of communication upon any simpler terms. It is evident, however, from Sweet's account that Spencer goes too far; there is nothing certain about the case but this: that there are substantives, words used in some variety of function and in a wide variety of relation. Charles Darwin relates (4) that when a little over a

1. Spencer, First Principles, Sec. 112.
2. Sweet, History of Language, p. 49.
3. Sweet, History of Language, p. 42.
4. Mind, July, 1877.

year old he used gestures to explain his wants, and had already invented the word *mum* or m–m to signify *food*, or *I want to eat*. He came soon after to attach it to all articles of food, *sugar*, for instance, being called by him *shu-mum*.

Conjectural history, the talk about how things would take place, or must have taken place, is notoriously hazardous; but it is not difficult to see how, with the child, the word *moo* may well come to serve as substantive for *cow*, and for the characteristic sound — activity of the cow,— for milk, and — possibly enough — for the color characteristic of some particular cow; so the word expressive of the idea of the blowing of wind might well come to serve also for a substantive fact for the activity, and for the quality of coldness associated with it. It is, indeed, surprising how many of our commonplace nouns at present are possessed of well defined verbal suggestion, as well as of the capacity to serve, in closely associated meanings, in a variety of different functions. So if the Indian were to get a smell of assafoetida, he would probably make some exclamation expressive of dislike. This interjectional form might afterward serve for the thing and for its smell, and for the associated mental activity of disapproval, i. e., as substantive, adjective, and verb.

There is sufficient authority for all this, however conjectural it may appear; though as bearing upon language there is evidently occasion for much further investigation of the psychology of babyhood and of primitive peoples, in the use of vague undifferentiated idea words, as, for example, *drink* for *water* or for *wet*, or for the activity of *drinking*. Later investigations in the phenomena of animism,— the obscure identity of things with life,— may come to throw light on this problem: at all events, motion words, thing words, and quality or sensation words, could hardly have been originally different.

The Indo-European roots are then, the elements of speech which existed prior to the development of grammatical distinctions and before the separation of the parts of speech. Roots indicated each some conception of entirely indefinite quality in point of relations, and viewed neither as the concrete name of an object, nor as attribute only, nor as predicate, but as equally adapted to serve for the purposes of any of these. "This is the state of things with exist-

ing tongues of a low grade of development. . . . . The genesis of the noun as a part of speech in its two forms of substantive and adjective, was implied in that of the verb; when one set of forms became distinctly verb the rest were left as noun. . . . . On the other hand, the further we go back the less are substantives and adjectives distinguished from each other; they are made with the same suffixes, they share the same inflections: things, in fact, are named from their qualities, and whether the quality-denoting word shall be used attributively or appellatively is at the outset a matter of comparative indifference." (1)

Something, then, has perhaps been accomplished toward tracing the origin and development of our parts of speech. The original forms must seemingly have been undifferentiated — lacking in distinguishable parts; speech rather than parts of speech. From this primary nebulous material have been elaborated the specialized forms which we term parts of speech. In the infinite various demands of thought for words-signs, it is intelligible,— it is, indeed, inevitable — that intermediate forms should have been preserved, and that the lines of separation should be in many cases those of degree rather than of kind, just as, in animal or vegetable life, genus and species, class and sub-class, are found to shade off into each other.

Regarded, then, from the thought point of view, nouns and pronouns are not separate parts of speech, but subdivisions under the class *substantives*. Participles are the union of verbal with modifying functions,— adverbs merely a subdivision under modifiers. Prepositions are to be regarded as mere verbal adjuncts, or as merely adverbs, or as falling within the connecting function,— interjections and responsive as primary undifferentiated language material — word protoplasm, so to speak.

If, now, we inquire whether grammarians have already carried the processes of subclassification too far, or yet may not profitably extend it, we can only say that, after these four primary forms of speech are recognized, further subdivision is necessarily conventional and arbitrary, though very possibly helpful. The attempt

1. Whitney, Life and Growth of Language, 205.

In *dolor* and *dolere* (pain and to suffer) if you suppress the substantive termination *or* and the verbal form *ere* there remains the significant or root syllable which is neither verb nor noun but may be used for the one or the other. Lefevre, Part I, ch. 2.

to elevate the article into a distinct class has not found favor; but the modifying function has admitted of profitable subdivision into the adjective and adverb. Doubtless the process might be carried further, though to no very obvious advantage. Adverbs now include the modifiers of verb, adjectives and prepositions. Should convenience so advise there is evidently room for further differentiation into ad-adverbs, ad-adjectives, etc. (1)

(1). Davenport & Emerson, Principles of Grammar, p. 214.

The customary division of the parts of speech in the Indo-European languages as handed down from the grammarians of antiquity rests upon no systematic application of original principles; it is rather due to the consideration of very diverse sets of facts; it bears accordingly the marks of arbitrariness and its defects are easily pointed out, yet it would be hard to replace it by anything essentially better as long as we aim at assigning every word to a particular class. The attempt to erect a system of strictly logical divisions is in all cases impracticable. Paul, Chapter 22.

The division commonly adopted . . . . . is convenient as a classification; but it must be borne in mind that it is not logically accurate, nor is it exhaustive. It is indeed impossible to divide words into sharply defined categories seeing that however we may divide them we shall find it difficult to exclude some from each category which may fairly claim to be registered under some other category or categories. Strong, Logeman & Wheeler, The History of Language, p. 343.

A PILGRIMAGE TO STRATFORD ON AVON.

HON. JAMES M. LORING, ST. LOUIS, MO.

CHRONOLOGICAL DATA.

1564, April 23. At Stratford on Avon, William Shakespeare is born in house in Henley Street.

1571–1578. Is pupil in grammar school on High Street.

1578. Earl of Leicester entertains Queen Elizabeth at Kenilworth.

1582. November. Marries Anna Hathaway, of Shottery.

1583. Susanna, his first child is born.

1585. Hammet and Judith twins are born.

1586. Goes to London, leaving wife and three children behind.

1586. Holds horses at door of theatre,— unverified legend — invented ages after.

1588. Ballad, lampooning Sir Thomas Lucy, Sheriff of Warwickshire, affixed to his gate; imputed to Shakespeare.

1592. Known in London as rewriter of old plays at the Globe Theatre.

1593. Acts before Queen Elizabeth.

1596. His son Hammet dies.

1596. Deed written and extant proving John Shakespeare, his father, still lives in Henley House.

1597. Purchases New Place,— then old — the best house in Stratford.

1598. In London, appears as actor in Ben Jonson's comedy.

1598. Letter to Shakespeare from Richard Quimbey, asking loan of thirty pounds; only letter written to Shakespeare extant.

1601. His father dies, having lived in Henley Street house forty-six years,— eight children lived there.

1602. Has already written Hamlet, and As You Like It, among others.

1604. William Shakespeare versus Philip Rogers, petition in suit for malt sold, filed, record is extant.

1605. Purchase tithes of Stratford, Bishoptown and Welcombe.

1608. Mary Arden Shakespeare, his mother, dies in Stratford.

1609. Gilbert, his brother, signs document as his attorney in fact, in Stratford.

1586 to 1611. Has produced thirty-seven plays, 154 sonnets, and two long poems.

1612. Disposes of his shares in Blackfriars Theatre, and in the Globe.

1613. Globe Theatre is destroyed by fire, and all books and manuscripts contained therein lost.

1613. Richard, his brother, dies.

1605–1615. Writes Othello, King Lear, Macbeth.

1616. Drayton and Jonson visit him at Stratford.

1616. April 23, at New Place, Stratford, Shakespeare, after an illness of three days, dies of a fever, gastritis, I infer.

1623. Bust, in Chancel of Holy Trinity Church at Stratford is erected.

1670. Susanna, afterwards Mrs. Nash, later Lady Barnard, sole survivor of his lineage, dies.

1757. "New Place" wantonly demolished by Rev. M. Gastrell, the owner.

1880. Mrs. Baker, sole lineal descendant of Anne Hathaway's father, dies.

1880. Shakespeare theatre and memorial is erected.

Such is the meagre Chronological record after 286 years research into Shakespeare's life history.

The first play I remember to have seen, as a child carried in arms, at the Olive Street Theatre in St. Louis, Missouri, fifty odd years ago. It was Macbeth. Its pageantry and swift tragic action bewildered and delighted me. From that day to this I have been an admirer of the master, having repeatedly read and seen acted his leading plays and perused many commentaries on them. Of the mind and soul of Shakespeare, as revealed in his compositions, we know as much as mortal men can of another man. We also know from the Parish Register kept in the Holy Trinity Church at Stratford, the dates of his birth and death. I saw it today. We also know that he married at eighteen, went

to London and became a "Johannes Factotum" at the Globe Theatre. I recently visited and located the spot in Southwark where it stood, now occupied by Barclay's brewery. We know that he re-wrote old plays—the library of this theatre possessed the accumulations of generations of plays in books and manuscripts,— and wrote new ones; that for a quarter of a century he produced one play at least annually and sometimes two; was a good manager, a good actor, a splendid man of business for himself and others; was protected by the Earl of Southampton and other noblemen, and also by Queen Elizabeth — a fact that does much to reconcile us to her many and great faults; that his thoughts during all his stay in London fondly,— as is evident — turned to this, his home; that he finally disposed of all his holdings in London; retired permanently to his new home in Stratford; died there, surrounded by wife, children and loving friends, universally beloved; was buried in the sacred place in the chancel of the Holy Trinity; and seven years later was honored by a bust decorating the wall above his tomb. This spot for years has been the Mecca of my thoughts and dreams as I turned the pages and pondered the deep thoughts of this marvelous man. In coming up here, between Oxford and Leamington I noticed beds of yellow flowers — wild mustard — blending with the color of the tender green meadows; forest of horse-chestnuts, oaks and elms. Allusions to roses, from buds to full bloom, luscious ripe and sweet, are scattered with a bountiful profusion through his pages. As I look out of the back window of this hospitable hostelry on Henley Street near his birthplace, I can see in the garden the descendants of those blooms so often admiringly looked upon by him. Passing over and through the fields in my approach to Stratford, I saw daffodils, violets blue, daisies pied, lady-smoks all silver white, cuckoo-buds of yellow hue, winking mary-buds, and all of poor Ophelia's flowers, rosemary, pansies, fennel, columbine, and rue in abundance. Doubtless he saw his sisters or his daughter Susanna, or Judith, his baby, bring from the fields in the early summer, aprons full of just such flowers. He knew them by their common names, not caring for any other. I plucked one of each, placed them between the leaves of my memorandum book to make a garland when I got home, in remembrance of this darling child and lover of nature. I also

took some fresh green ivy leaves from the wall near the gate of the porch to the church. It is "leafy June," and for miles around the hawthorne hedges are white with blossoms. Doubtless at not a very remote geological period, this whole island was submerged in the sea; the beds of marine shells of the pliocene era filled with the nitrogenous remains of dead mollusks, in the limestone formation make nutriment for the grass of the far extending meadows here peculiarly rich and lusty, giving them a deep dark green tinge, forming fine flesh for the domestic animals, and strong firm muscles for the men and women. The lime in solution in the drinking water builds up strong bones. I drank today of the water of Anne Hathaway's Spring. The distant horizon all around the circle, as I glance out is clothed with that delicate azure hue that lends enchantment to the view. The air is full of moisture. The whole island like "an emerald set in a silver sea," is swathed in clouds, white and dark blue, that constantly rise like steam from the superheated waters of the Gulf Stream in summer, making the flowers and plants, trees and shrubs of England although the same latitude as Labrador, like the foliage of a hothouse. Warwickshire is as near the topographical center of England as its very irregular and indented coast line will permit. This whole country is like a park, kept by that fine landscape gardener "Nature." After my pilgrimage through Charlecote and Welcombe, I concluded that Shottery and Stratford are the most inviting. As I look out of the window I see thick masses of clouds scudding from the west. Doubtless with eye "turned from earth to heaven" our poet often noted similar clouds here on their way to be "buried in the bosom of great ocean." The levels and plateau of land hereabout are broad, wide and peculiarly open to all skyey influences. The atmosphere from all points seems to me to be self-luminous, sparkling, and the infinitesimal atoms to move automatically and nimbly, with an invigorating and uplifting effect. The flora and fauna and weather of the plays fit into this landscape exactly, and *vice versa*, as if described by a naturalist. The ruins of Kenilworth not too far away for an active and ambitious boy of fourteen to get there on foot as I saw today; — the proud Earl of Leicester; — the haughty and jealous queen; — the glorious beauty Amy Robsart, rival to a queen; — all these

attractions must have fired the imagination of such a boy, as bright master William was at the time of the Queen's visit. The allegorical scenes depicted in a "Mid-Summer Night's Dream" read like a literal description of the entertainment provided by the Lord of the Castle, and so vividly described also by Sir Walter Scott in Kenilworth. There is in the play a distinct allusion to

> "An Imperial Votress,—
> A fair vestal throud in the West."

And all through the landscape winds the lovely Avon in early morn and eve like a sheet of silver, with willows showing white beneath by reflection in the smooth surface of the pool below.

In such a country, at such a time, was the dramatist born; the right time and the right place, as I wrote in the visitor's book today.

At the age of seven and until seventeen he attended the grammar school in the second floor of the chapel of the Guild Hall on the southeast corner of Chapel and High Streets. How many miscellaneous books and legends he devoured we do not know. I saw in the museum in the house in Henley Street an ancient and capacious book and writing desk said to be his taken from this school room. The pictorial panorama of the History of the Holy Cross once illuminated the walls of the school room and their scenes doubtless sunk deep into his receptive mind. His faith through life to the close was in the Evangelical Orthodox Christian belief, not obtrusive, and the mediated dramas are composed by him on lines laid down in the Gospels, repentence, forgiveness, and salvation.

The house in Henley Street is the largest on the street. It has three gables. It is on the line of the street. It is in good condition outside and in; the floor of the room entered is composed of large smooth blue stones, embedded in the earth. It has no "cellarage." This room has an enormous wide chimney with a large throat. I stooped under, looked up, and could see the sky; a settle is on one side and an ingle nook on the other, where one could sit close to the flame within the face of the fireplace. Doubtless this healthy imaginative boy often did sit there and gaze into the curling flames weaving strange fancies as his mother

and sisters moved about in household duties, the lad meanwhile having a sense of comfort, as being "at home." A fire has not been made in it for centuries. From this room I passed into an L divided into three rooms. I returned again to the kitchen. Adjoining is a room facing the street,— private,— now used as a record room. Adjoining the kitchen and facing the street are two rooms used for a museum of Shakespeare souvenirs, the sword carried before his father and his signet ring are here. There are seven rooms on the first floor, six rooms on the second, and three attic rooms, making sixteen in all. The number surprised me. There are no halls or porches. The staircase to the second floor ascends from the L room. There is a staircase leading into the attic, closed to visitors. The ceilings are low. I could easily touch them. The front room above the kitchen, 13 x 14, as I measured it, is where the wonderful child first uttered his wailing cry as he came into this breathing world. Visitors are permitted to sit in Shakespeare's low chair in this room. The walls are covered with penciled signatures. None are permitted now. It seems that all the great of the earth have been here to honor this lovely room. The panes of glass are small, are scratched all over with signatures made with diamond rings. I saw the signatures of W. Scott and T. Carlyle. A book is now provided where each visitor enters his name in ink. Judging from the size and number of the books, a stream of visitors has flowed into this goal of *literati* for many years. A shilling each one pays defrays the expense of custodians, four in number, and repairs: the house belongs to the nation which patriotically purchased it, and would not allow Barnum, the showman, to dismember it and carry it away. The oak framework of the building, floors, joists, rafters, stanchions, are solid, sound, discolored, dimension oak hardened with great age, as the structure was ancient when John Shakespeare purchased it. The casings, doors, windows and fittings are not horizontal or perpendicular to a level, are sunken, are loose-jointed and admit the winter winds, "admonishes that feelingly persuade us what we are." Many large fires and warm bedding were required to keep the inmates comfortable in that house in winter. It is well "ventilated." Plaster and wood are the materials; the joinings being mortised and pinioned; no iron nails. It is an honest house; no sham; and picturesque with its pointed gables, small window panes, and many wood mullions

and members. The shadowy forms of the Shakespeares haunt this house. What a splendid woman the mother of such a man must have been! what a physical frame, heart, brain and mind! Here the marvelous child was born! Here nurtured.

As I entered the city I saw a number of boys just let out of school, bright and gleeful lads with rosy faces. I could imagine master William was such a boy. One came up to me and offered to be my guide. "What do I think of Shakespeare?" "He was a very great poet, sir," was his reply. A bright lad with blue eyes, white and pink skin. Imagination could easily picture master William such a boy at that age. Out of school at fourteen,—he helped his father in the different vocations, glover, woolcomber, and farmer. Exploring every nook and corner of this lovely land, going with the family to church on Sunday, he was not long in finding other beauties than nature in the countryside. He saw Anne, and as Miranda and Ferdinand did, "changed eyes" probably in that very walk under the lime trees leading to the church door, and accompanied her home. From that time his fate was sealed. The smoke that curled from her lowly thatched cottage thereafter was doubtless his beacon by day and the glint of the fire flashing through those diamond window panes was the light that lured him by night. He knew short cuts to Shottery from every point, and every road seemed to lead straight to that enchanted cottage. The mature charms of the "imperial" Anne, then twenty-four, had ensnared the heart of the all too emotional youth of eighteen. "Love found a way" through all the guards of argus-eyed mother. What a lover he must have been, fit for the queen of the whole world, and yet perhaps content to sit by that ingleside I saw today, and gaze fondly into sweet Anne's eyes, and watch her every motion with a lover's keen delight. There could be but one result: they loved and were married. She became the mother of his children; remained his sole wife through life in spite of the mysterious "black" beauty of the sonnets; survived him, followed his remains no doubt tearfully to their last resting-place, cherished and honored his memory; was proud of his fame and joined with her son-in-law in erecting the bust and inscribing the epitaph in the chancel of the church, as we have every reason to believe. She was never heard to complain of any alleged desertion. When he prospered in London, he returned at intervals to his home here; he established his home at New Place,

occupied it at first during intermittent visits, and finally continuously till the closing scene of his great and wonderful life.

The alleged prosecution by Sir Thomas Lucy for stealing deer must have been a legal prosecution. If such, there must have been a record in court. There is no such record extant. The story must have been invented by a gossip a generation after his death, and no foundation in contemporaneous fact has been produced. The menial service of holding horses for noblemen, coming from London to the Globe Theatre was also an invention of an after age and lacks proof. An intelligent guard said to me today at the railroad station at Stratford, "Of course he wrote the plays. No one else could." A bright sensible lady, an inmate of this house, an old resident, said: "The unbroken tradition here in this place, sir, is that Mr. William Shakespeare wrote his works." She never heard of any proof to the contrary. A sweet-faced beautiful young American lady from Baltimore, who rode with me in the car to Kenilworth and Warwick, said, with dainty and convincing accent, she could not see how anybody could imagine anything different under the circumstances. What sane man would want to conceal the authorship of the Winters Tale; of Troilus and Cressida; of the Tempest? These probably were written at New Place in his serene mature retrospective and closing years. I have this year seen all the tombs of the great, from the pyramids of Egypt to the Invalides in Paris. None have so impressed me as the simplicity and grandeur of this of Holy Trinity at Stratford. I walked around the church, past what had been the charnel house,—he mentions in Romeo and Juliet a charnel house,—over the mossy turf and between the leaning grave stones, I turned my eye up to the tapering stone spire. Two hoarse ravens were circling around in a contest; a feather fell to the earth, broken, and yet warm from the body of one as I touched it; the feather had steel-black blue iridescent colors; these ravens are doubtless the descendants of the cousins of those that had croaked a hoarse welcome about Macbeth's towers as Duncan fatally entered, as they croak about the tower today opposite the remains of Shakespeare's "New Place" home.

I sat long in the chancel of the church and gazed thoughtfully at the lovely stained allegorical windows of the Seven Ages, and

the American gift windows, and at his bust, bathed in the celestial light of the cathedral glass. I ran through in my mind the characters with which he had peopled his imaginary world, more real to me than many actual persons who had lived and died; Miranda, Perdita, Ariel, Puck, and others, circling in and out of the openings; I thought of the wonderful fecundity of that matchless intellect, the greatest that had ever been given to any of the children of men, of his sweet disposition, his character as noble and high-minded, as his own ideal Hamlet, or the real Henry V., and looked at that broad brow and those sealed lips smiling and forever smiling upon us with an inscrutable mystery, a face as unfathomable as that of the Egyptian Sphinx. The mystery still remains that so much intellectual work and of such a high order was accomplished in so short a life by a man of such lowly antecedents. With the multitude, how much of our short lease of time is occupied in providing food, clothing and shelter, how much wasted in day-dreaming idleness and trifling, "so much to do, so little done." Life is short and art is long; with "this paragon of the world" art was deep, sure, swift, intuitive, creative, God-given. He used in his plays nearly thirty thousand different words of the then English language of eighty thousand, and largely moulded our tongue into its present plastic form, made it the shrine of compositions the most artistic ever emanating from a merely human brain.

In the end England will lose her possessions in India; the Boer Republics in South Africa will all be free; Australasia and New Zealand will be absolutely independent; and there will be a free United States of Canada; — then while the dust of oblivion is increasing in layers on the tombs of the Norman kings of England, and on the sepulchres of the Plantagenets, the Tudors, the Stuarts, the Hanovers and the Coburgs, and the sounds of their murderous strifes and ambitions are vanishing in the dim aisles and corridors of a far receding past; then, then,— the Glory of this Son of Genius will rise higher and higher in the zenith and become the chief possession and Honor of these Isles, and the name and fame and work of Shakespeare shall be a blessing to the whole human race.

Stratford, England, June 11, 1902.

EDITORIAL.

THE Free Lectures maintained by the Board of Education, City of New York, are deserving of all the large patronage they receive, and should be better known elsewhere than they seem to be. The official report for 1901–'02 is out and makes an excellent exhibit. The management is in the hands of a committee from the Board of Education, through Dr. Henry M. Leipsiger as supervisor. The several courses represent 3,172 lectures in eighty-one localities, with an aggregate attendance of 928,251. More than 2,000 of these lectures were illustrated by stereopticon or experiments. They are, distinctively, lectures "for the people." Of the different lectures, 226 were upon geographical topics; 113 upon literature (38 of these were Shakespeare); 91 upon American History, and the same number upon the sciences and nature study; 41 concerned electricity and its applications; 27 physiology and hygiene; 20 municipal interests, and 16 educational topics. The movement is a part of that general activity manifested in a few other large cities, and several smaller ones, to make the schoolhouse a center of a more systematic, intellectual and economic improvement for its neighborhood. It presents a promising suggestion. The school was established originally to furnish instruction for minors. In many states only minors may receive, without charge the benefits of its tuition. The lines have not been so closely drawn in the case of night schools. Much collegiate and professional and technical instruction is made free in state and city institutions to adults. The New York plan of free lectures carefully organized and given in courses by experts, is another step in the same direction. The experiment should be tried in other cities.

THE resignation of Supt. Lewis H. Jones from the Cleveland schools, and his election as president of the State Normal College of Michigan, are two significant school changes that are of more than local interest. What has been accomplished, chiefly through Mr. Jones' agency at Cleveland, cannot, perhaps be put into any brief statement. Mr. Jones, it is understood, endorses the system thoroughly. And to a non-resident student of school organization his endorsement of it would carry great weight. He speaks of it (in his farewell address) as founded upon an idea that "is a world achievement in educational lines." Central control fixes responsibility. The

more divided control retains, so it is said, the management nearer to the people. The two ideas are both strongly represented in Ohio. Whether the former is growing, either in Ohio or elsewhere, as applied to school systems, it is difficult to say. The larger cities have been slow to adopt it. Great difference of opinion exists in the present legislature of the State convened in extraordinary session to consider a uniform municipal code for the State. The Federal plan meets with much opposition. Probably no other man could have been found to give the plan a fairer trial than Superintendent Jones, who, eight years ago was superintendent of Indianapolis schools. He is thoroughly familiar with current best movements in education; he is a man of unusual executive ability; he is scholarly and conservative; he is a man of years of proved leadership among teachers. His own estimate of the success and promise of the Cleveland plan should win for it confidence, at least most respectful consideration by school men and law makers. Not less significant is Mr. Jones' advent among school men in Michigan. The Normal College at Ypsilanti is among the large Normal schools of the country. Measured by the number of annual graduates and the length and richness of the courses, and the number who fit for the higher positions, and the *personnel* of the faculty, and the fine equipment in libraries and laboratories, the college has few superiors as an institution for the training of teachers, and offers an excellent opportunity for high grade work and the exerting of a determining influence upon the standards of teaching and educational doctrines in a state already eminent for its institutions of learning. Mr. Jones has an initial training from the Oswego Normal School, years of connection with the State Normal School of Indiana, and the City Training School at Indianapolis, back of this new experience at Ypsilanti. His years of experience even in city school supervision have fitted him admirably for the problems that are yet to confront him. Michigan has a very large number of accredited high schools. The matriculants at the college are generally well prepared. A large proportion of them pursue the full course of four years. The school is a college, not in name only, and may safely claim a place beside the academic institutions of like grade throughout the Northwest. EDUCATION freely congratulates Michigan upon the election of Mr. Jones, and bespeaks for him the confidence he so abundantly deserves.

UNDER the title of "Promotional Examination Work" the Chicago schools have organized a series of Normal Extension Courses for teachers who are eligible for advancement. The Courses

include one on the History of Philosophy, by Principal Tompkins, one on Psychology, by Vice-Principal M. A. Harvey, one on the History of Education, by Mr. A. J. Hogan, one in Drawing, by Miss Bertha Hintz, one in Music, by Miss Marcella Rielly, and one in German, by Miss Teresa Forgatsch. Already nearly 1,000 teachers have been enrolled in the several classes. The instructors are all from the Normal School, and the expenses are met from the Normal School Fund. There is no greater problem before the Superintendents of Schools in either small or large cities than that of arousing and keeping constant the improvement of teachers already in the ranks. Officials and supervisors may be over zealous and easily expect too much of teachers; and teachers themselves may come to feel the expectation as a burden and be led to attempt more than their abilities and their endurance would justify. Superintendents have need to remember that the usual day's work is already a considerable tax upon the conscientious, ambitious teacher. If one is to do his best work he must find, each day, recovery from the previous day's strain. Nevertheless, teachers must grow in personal power and spiritual furnishing else they not only lose place in the ranks, but themselves deteriorate. They must be students. The studious habit not only improves the teaching, but the teacher; possibly that because this. To such teachers the much dreaded, traditional, repeated examinations and passing upon credentials become meaningless. In an active aggressive system the need for these opportunities for study, the serious pursuit of learning, lectures, round tables, etc., are strongly felt. Teachers' meetings may do much, but these must be occasions for serious work, not a routine handling of routine conditions. The Chicago plan commends itself as a sensible effort to bring the means of professional and certain kinds of academic training within reach of the active teacher.

FOREIGN NOTES.

WESTERN INFLUENCES IN THE ORIENT.— BRITISH INDIA.

On account of the responsibilities our government has assumed with respect to the education of an Oriental people the efforts of European nations in the same field have special interest for us. The most important question that arises in view of the work relates to the teaching of language especially as a medium for the impartation of ethical ideas. The experience of the English in India and that of the French in Indo-China, in this particular are worthy of all attention.

The English government accepted the education of the people of India as a state duty in 1854. From the first the need of elementary education for the masses was distinctly recognized, but by force of many circumstances, higher education secured the lion's share of the government aid. It was in respect to the Universities that the conflict was waged between the opposing advocates of English and of Oriental education. Macaulay's advocacy of English turned the scale against the Orientalists, and although subsequent efforts were made to change the policy thus inaugurated, English both as a study and as the medium of general instruction has retained the ascendancy. As the Universities exercise a controlling influence over colleges and secondary schools the effect of this early decision has been felt throughout the entire system of education so far as it pertains to the better classes.

The statistics for 1896–'97 afford some idea of the extent to which the English language is actually spreading among the youth of British India. Omitting girls who form an exceedingly small fraction of the pupils, it appears that twenty-two per cent. of the male population of school-going age were under instruction in schools recognized by the government, and that of this proportion about ten per cent. were learning English.

Experience has shown the futility of efforts to force English upon the elementary schools and all recent directors of education urge the importance of fostering the native or vernacular schools. The Commission of 1882, appointed to inquire into the educational condition and to advise means for its improvement, says, "All indigenous schools, whether high or low, should be recognized and encouraged if they serve any purpose of secular education whatever." This policy has also been strongly endorsed under Lord Curzon's administration.

The determination of the present Viceroy to reform the system of government education in British India has been shown by a searching

examination into the existing conditions. The most glaring defects brought to light by the examination are the neglect of elementary education and the superficiality of higher education. In Bengal, for example, out of twenty-five lakhs (about $510,000) spent by the government on general education in 1901, primary education received only two lakhs (about $41,000).

As to the so-called higher education, competent witnesses admit that it amounts to little more than a cramming for examinations. If one university manages to raise its examination tests, the students have the alternative of going to another that keeps to the low standards. When, for instance, the Allahabad University raised the standard of the entrance examination, students flocked to pass the entrance at the Punjab University. This state of things led to the appointment of a Universities Commission, which after a very searching investigation, has issued a report covering the facts and suggesting remedies for the evils disclosed.

Commenting upon the recommendations of the Commission, the Pioneer Mail (Allahabad) says with respect to subjects of instruction: "We are glad to see that the Committee seem to recommend that English be taught first as a language, and then as a literature. It was not a little absurd to find students who could give the latest critical canon on the prose style of Walter Pater, and yet not be able to put together the constituent parts of a sentence. The additional attention which the Committee recommend be paid to the scholarly knowledge of the vernaculars is also welcome, and we fancy that it is only the lack of encouragement by the government that induced the Commission to deprecate the establishment of Oriental sides to other Universities. The encouragement of science also will be regarded as most commendable."

The same journal heartily endorses also the recommendations with respect to the establishment of university faculties for professional teaching. "As for the study of law," says this paper, "the interests of obscure Colleges should not be allowed to stand in the way of one of the most useful reforms set forth in the Report. As it happens, all the Universities are situated in the same place as the High Court or Chief Court of their respective Provinces, and so the best talent should be available for the professorial staffs, not to speak of the opportunities the student will have of acquiring some knowledge of the working of the highest embodiment of justice with which he will have to deal in after life. It has long been felt that a Medical College should be established in the United Provinces. The Thomason Medical School

has been in existence in Agra since 1854, but up till now it has only been able to produce hospital assistants, and those who want to qualify for medical degrees have to go to Lahore. As has been suggested by correspondents, the Agra school would make an excellent nucleus, but whether the authorities adopt this plan or another, the result can only be beneficial to the United Provinces, where sound medical men are so much required. The training of teachers is recommended to the care of the University, and in its higher branches it might well form one of the post-graduate studies directly under its wing."

THE FRENCH IN FARTHER INDIA.

In an interesting report on the educational work carried on by the French in Indo-China, Prof. Charles Garnier charged by the University of Paris with a special mission to the East, dwells particularly on the language problem as it has developed in the French dependencies. "The instruction in the French language," he says, "however it may seem to those who preach 'assimilation,' is not the most satisfactory aspect of the work. In colonial circles, at least outside of France, the liberal but baseless conviction that the oriental native is to be regenerated by means of the French language is being rapidly dispelled. We are beginning to appreciate the scepticism of the English. Our eyes are open to the significance of the vast effort which they have pushed in India with so much energy and so little result. But we need not look beyond our own experiment in Cochin-China. If the province was smaller and therefore, the evil of less magnitude, we might congratulate ourselves upon having in our own corner of Asia a detailed and vivid program of what ought to be avoided. By fostering the Romanized transcription of the Annamite language, and suppressing the study of the ideographic characters we have at one stroke separated this people from all the literary and moral nourishment which was suited to their monosyllabic language and to their mental constitution fashioned by ages of Chinese culture. Deprived of the intellectual culture which they drew from the books of their race, incapable of assimilating the moral instruction which we French people derive from French books, the Annamites of Cochin China have become foreigners in their own country, strangers disdainful of their home, and their land, uprooted on their native heath.

The mistake is admitted now when it is past remedy. The last report of the Director of Public Instruction formulating programs on the basis of the French language admits the futility of the scheme."

"Warned by this experience the Director of Public Instruction for

Annam-Tonkin, M. Dumoutier, has pursued a different course. He is not only an able administrator, but a savant deeply versed in archæology and philology, and he understands how difficult it is to change materially the mental habits of a race. M. Dumoutier deprecates all plans that threaten a sudden break in the continuity of race development; accordingly, instead of forcing the French language upon a mass of people totally unprepared for it, he prefers to introduce it gradually in connection with branches of the native program to which it may be best adapted. In the scheme of instruction which he has prepared, French will be reserved for a select and elevated class. From this higher class under the impulse of social imitation which always moves from the higher to the lower social circles, the French language will descend gradually to all the people by a natural path." In order to carry out this plan it has been decided to establish a College of Mandarins at Hanoi, and a National College at Hué destined for the sons of Mandarins and for youths of the royal family. In these colleges French will be added to the Sino-Annamite education which is equivalent to the Greco-Roman discipline or classical training of European colleges. For those who seek university degrees, French will be included as an integral part of the final examinations.

The bearing of these experiences in the Indies upon the educational problem that confronts us in the Philippines is obvious.

THE HIGHER COMMERCIAL SCHOOL OF JAPAN.

From the report of the Tokio Higher Commercial School for 1901, it appears that the school was attended by 503 students who were taking complete courses in commerce of an advanced character; there were 396 students studying foreign language only in a special department attached to the school. These were divided as follows: For English, 88; French, 89; German, 88; Russian, 52; Spanish, 20; Chinese, 47; Korean, 12. The average age of these students is twenty-four. * * * In order to obtain the full diploma of the school, students must pass examinations of an advanced character in commercial correspondence and arithmetic, book-keeping, two foreign languages, the commercial aspects of mechanical engineering, a knowledge of commercial products, commercial and industrial geography and history, political economy, a knowledge of statistics, civil law, commercial law, the science and practice of commerce, gymnastics, and military drill. From the list given in the calendar it is evident that the graduates of the school have no difficulty in obtaining positions in the Government offices, banks, insurance offices, railways, etc., while some are employed

as teachers in the various commercial schools of Japan. The staff of the school consists of twenty-nine professors, twenty assistants, and ten clerks; the majority of these are Japanese, but Great Britain, the United States, Belgium, Italy, France, Germany, Russia, Spain, China and Korea are all represented on the staff. The school is supported by the Japanese Government, and the site and buildings cost about $140,000. The annual fee is only twelve dollars a year, but candidates for admission must, as a rule, be over seventeen years of age, and must pass examinations in Japanese, Chinese, moderately advanced mathematics, geography, drawing, physics, chemistry, English, and gymnastics.

A. T. S.

BOOK NOTICES.

To accommodate readers who may wish it, the publishers of EDUCATION will send, post paid, on receipt of the price, any book reviewed in these columns.

New France and New England. By John Fiske. While the present volume appears as a posthumous work, yet it was practically completed by its late lamented author, and with the exception of the final pages of a single chapter and some reference notes, no additions have been made by another hand. This volume completes the story of the settlement and development of the colonies up to the period taken up in the author's American Revolution, and it thus fills the gap which he had left in early American history. In logical historical sequence this work in so far as it pertains to New England, comes after "The Beginnings of New England," but it also holds the position of supplementary volume to other of Fiske's works. The scope of this volume is best indicated by its chapter headings: I. From Cartier to Champlain. II. The Beginnings of Quebec. III. The Lords of Arcady — the Later History of Champlain. IV. Wilderness and Empire (the French in the Upper Lake Region and the Mississippi Valley). V. Witchcraft in Salem Village. VI. The Great Awakening (Intellectual and Religious Progress in New England). VII. Norredgewock and Louisburg. VIII. Beginnings of the Great War. IX. Crown Point, Fort William Henry, and Ticonderoga. X. Louisburg, Fort Duquesne, and the Fall of Quebec. The breadth of Fiske's views of the historical field are nowhere better shown than in the present volume. Of the individual chapters the most interesting, or, rather, fascinating, are Witchcraft in Salem Village, and the Great Awakening. The former is perhaps the best brief sketch that has been published of this blot on New England history; while the latter is an equally valuable account of the establishment of the distinctive later New England religious and intellectual spirit and ideas. A comprehensive review of the author's other works was given in an article on John Fiske: An American Scholar, in the number of EDUCATION for Feb., 1902. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

The Shakespeare Cyclopædia and New Glossary. By John Phin. With Introduction by Edward Dowden, LL. D., D. C. L., Litt. D., Professor of English Literature in the University of Dublin. This book is addressed to the ordinary reader rather than to the profound Shakespearean scholar, although we believe that even the latter will find in this Cyclopædia some things that are not only new, but good. To enjoy Shakespeare fully we must understand him thoroughly, and this volume aims to give the meaning of all the old and unusual words found in Shakespeare's works, and of the ordinary words used in unusual senses and in unusual forms of construction, as well as explanations of idiomatic phrases, etc. It also gives full explanations and elaborate notes on the mythological, biographical and antiquarian references, as well as on folk lore, local traditions, legends, allusions, proverbs, old English customs, etc., etc., with the most important variorum readings. In other words, it is intended to form a supplement to all the ordinary editions of Shakespeare's writings. The Introduction by Professor Dowden forms a notable contribution to Shakespearean literature and must command the earnest attention of all real students of the works of the great dramatist. New York: The Industrial Publication Co. Price, $1.50.

Letters from a Self-Made Merchant to His Son. It is no longer a secret that this book is by George Horace Lorimer, son of Rev. George C. Lorimer the well-known Baptist minister. It is a great "hit." Its humor is as keen as that of David Harum, and it is brim full and running over with common sense. It is almost as good as a college education to read this book. It is also good for the dyspepsia. It will take its place in the front ranks of books of American humor. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co. Price, $1.50.

The Thrall of Leif the Lucky. A Story of Viking Days. By Ottilie A. Liliencrantz. The pictures illustrating this story of the North are not alluring. We must confess that they created a prejudice in our mind against the book. When we overcame this and began to read, we found that we had a tale of strong originality. The scene is laid at a time when Christianity had a rough world to conquer. The author has studied the age carefully and gives a vivid portrayal of a strong, brave, rude people,—the durable "raw material" out of which the civilized life of a later time was made. The book is full of a manly vigor that is as bracing in these more delicate times as a north wind in dog days. The historical setting is picturesque, the plot dramatic, the book readable. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.

Concerning Polly, By Helen M. Winslow. A thoroughly entertaining, clean healthful story of New England country life is presented in this book. The life story of Polly is naturally told, from the time when she was a poor little ragged, homeless waif, till she was grown up, happily married and the wise and loving dispenser of a large fortune for the good of others. The character of "Uncle Kellup," the quaint, rough, lovable old Vermont farmer who picked her up in the streets of Boston, and gave her a home that was a true home in every sense of the word, reminds us of the hero of the "Old Homestead." In fact, this story could be effectively dramatized and would make a most interesting play. It abounds in humor and pathos. It will make a splendid gift-book for girs, and will interest almost any class of readers. Boston: Lee & Shepard. Price, $1.50.

"The Diary of a Saint." Arlo Bates's latest novel gives the story of one year in the life of Ruth Privet, a New England girl. It was a very eventful year, crowded with experiences and impressions. At the beginning, Ruth was engaged to the man who had been brought up with her and educated by her father. At the end of the year she had established her right to the title of Saint, by her self-sacrifice and moral fineness, and incidentally had spread a sweet influence in the community. The central thought of the book is that saintship is a matter rather of conduct than theory; is ethical rather than religious. The structure of the novel — in the form of a diary — is very simple, and makes the development of events and character unusually clear. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. Price $1.50.

Pau Kelver. By Jerome K. Jerome. This late novel is the author's longest and most serious effort. Its hero speaks in the first person, and gives a circumstantial account of his life. The real boy,— a living entity, gradually developing self-consciousness, discriminating his own personality from the flow of events outside, peopling the world with fanciful beings, anon up against good or evil realities, growing, learning, doubting, trusting, loving, hating, doing, suffering — becoming a man, filling out a human destiny — this is the story. Its movement is slow, its scenes sometimes commonplace. But it is thoughtful, reflecting real life in its deeper meanings. Humor abounds. So does pathos. We think of Dickens, of David Copperfield and Nicholas Nickleby. It is a strong story that will interest the serious-minded reader and be skimmed by the frivolous. New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. Price, $1.50.

The White World. Life and Adventures within the Arctic Circle, portrayed by Famous Living Explorers. Collected and arranged for the Arctic Club, by Rudolph Kersting. This will prove, we are confident, one of the most interesting and popular books of travel and research of recent times. It differs from most books of exploration in being the personal narrative of what most impressed and interested a large number of separate voyagers and commanders who have made journeys for different purposes into the frozen North. The first chapter is by Admiral Schley, and is entitled "An Arctic Rescue." David Brainard writes of "Farthest North with Greely"; Middleton Smith of "Superstitions of the Eskimo"; Hugh J. Lee, of "Lost on the Ice-Cap"; Florence Leonard Lee, of "An Arctic Honeymoon;" Prof. G. Frederick Wright, on "Wrecked on the Coast of Greenland"; Rudolph Kersting, on "Photography in the Far North"; etc., etc. Each and every chapter is thoroughly interesting. Many are dramatic in the extreme. The entire volume is informing and instructive. We congratulate the Arctic Club, the compiler, and the new publishing house which issues the volume, on their success in giving the reading world a most excellent new book of discovery and adventure. New York: Lewis, Scribner & Co. Price, $2.00.

Syllabus of Lectures on the History of Education. By E. P. Cubberly, of Stanford University. This is a comprehensive volume recently issued from the press of The Macmillan Co. Beginning with ancient Egyptian education, nearly half the book of 300 pages is given to schools and education and education's theory before the Reformation. A dozen pages are devoted to America. The volume is an outgrowth of a series of classroom lectures by the author, delivered in the Leland Stanford, Jr. University, before the Department of Education. The collateral ref-

erences and bibliographical lists will be found very helpful to instructors or private students of the subject. More than fifty illustrations and maps accompany the text, and numerous blank pages are inserted for the convenience of studious readers' memoranda. Teachers, greatly in need of and much to be benefitted by a more familiar acquaintance with the sources and conditions of development of modern educational institutions and school theories and systems, will find in this Syllabus a working manual of great service. New York: The Macmillan Co. Price, $2.25.

It is becoming increasingly clear to students of social and educational questions, that one of the most important periods of our national history was that in which the great West, and especially the Mississippi and Ohio valleys were opened to safe settlement. "**On the Frontier with St. Clair,**" is a book to gladden the hearts of both children and teachers. The story begins with a movement of settlers westward in 1791, and covers Governor St. Clair's expedition against the Miamis. The scenes are laid in Southern Indiana and Ohio. The story, while losing none of the thrilling interest that attaches to a recounting of military doings, is at the same time a fascinating romance. The pioneer manners and customs, economic conditions and political disturbances, the home and industries and attempts at safe settlement are all brought in review. Few recent books can be more safely placed in the hands of the young of either sex with greater assurance that they will be read, or that the effects will be wholesome, or that will contribute more to enrich the elementary school course than "On the Frontier with St. Clair." It will take a place along with standard stories of Colonial Days, the Revolution and the Great West. By Charles S. Wood. The W. A. Wilde Co. Boston & Chicago.

Opportunities in the Colonies and Cuba. By William H. Taft, Brigadier-General Leonard Wood, Hon. Charles H. Allen, Hon. Perfecto Lacoste, and Hon. M. E. Beall. This volume gives just the information that many are seeking about "our new possessions." It is packed full of information from the most authoritative sources, and will be regarded as a final standard by those who want the facts in regard to the countries considered. There are so many conflicting reports of various matters in these far-off lands, sent to the newspapers with divers motives and by irresponsible persons, that it is well to have a reliable volume like this one for ready reference. New York: Lewis, Scribner & Co. Price, $1.00.

Training for Citizenship. An elementary treatise on the rights and duties of citizens. By Joseph Warren Smith, A. M. The author has furnished a book that stands in a medium position between the brief outline volumes on this subject, such as that by Rev. C. F. Dole, and the more voluminous and exhaustive treatises. His object is to place before the immature reader all the essentials of good citizenship, with such an historic background as will make the principles of good government vivid and impressive, Part I. deals with Home and School; Part II. with Township Government; Part III. with Village, City and County Government; Part IV. with State; Part V. with National affairs. The ground is covered with sufficient thoroughness and the book will serve a very useful purpose. Boston: Lothrop Publishing Company. Price, 90 cents net.

We acknowledge the receipt of the following new and excellent books: —

A Laboratory Manual of Botany. By Otis W. Caldwell, Ph. D. D. Appleton & Co.; price, 40 cents.—Sixty-fifth Annual Report of the Massachusetts Board

of Education, together with the Sixty-fifth Annual Report of the Secretary of the Board, 1900, 1901; Wright & Potter Printing Co., Boston.—List of References on Reciprocity Books, Articles in Periodicals, Congressional Documents, compiled under the direction of A. P. G. Griffin, Chief of Division of Bibliography; Washington. Government Printing Office.—The Shade Tree Insect Problem: Lecture delivered by A. H. Kirkland, M. S., of Boston; From the 49th Annual Report of the Mass. State Board of Agriculture.—A Teacher's Manual of Geography. By Chas. McMurry, Ph. D.; The Macmilian Co.—Hans Andersen's Best Stories; University Publishing Co., New York.—The Religion of the Future: or, Outlines of Spiritual Philosophy. By Rev. Samuel Weil; Arena Publishing Co.; Price, 50 cents.—Isaac Pitman's Shorthand Instructor; Isaac Pitman & Sons.—Gosnold's Settlement at Cuttyhunk; published by the Directors of the Old South Work, Boston.—Lord Chesterfield's Letters to his Son. By Joseph B. Seabury; Silver, Burdett & Co.—Jacknapes and The Brownies. By Juliana Horatia Ewing; edited with Introduction and Notes by Henry W. Boynton, M. A. The Riverside Literature Series, No. 151; Houghton, Mifflin & Co.—Plato's Euthyphro; with Introduction and Notes by William Arthur Heidel, Ph. D., Professor in Iowa College; Greek Series for Colleges and Schools. Edited under the supervision of Herbert Weir Smyth, Ph. D., Eliot Professor of Greek Literature in Harvard University; American Book Co. Price, $1.00.—Complete Graded Arithmetic. By George E. Atwood; D. C. Heath & Co. Third Grade, Fourth Grade, Fifth Grade, Sixth Grade.—A Dramatization of Longfellow's Song of "Hiawatha" for school and home theatricals. By Florence Holbrook. No. 151 extra (W) in the Riverside Literature Series; Houghton, Mifflin & Co.—Old English Ballads. Edited, with Introduction and Notes by James P. Kinard, Ph. D.; Silver, Burdett & Co. (The Silver Series of Classics.)—Selected Poems of William Woodworth. Edited, with Introduction and Notes by Joseph B. Seabury. Silver, Burdett & Co. (The Silver Series of Classics.)

PERIODICALS.

Before his nomination for the Vice-Presidency Theodore Roosevelt wrote expressly for *The Youth's Companion* an article on "The Presidency." It will be published in the number for November 6th, this being one of the remaining weekly issues of 1902 sent free from the time of subscription to every new subscriber. When this article on "The Presidency" was written no one could have foreseen or dreamed even that its author would so soon be called upon to take up the duties of the great office. For this reason alone what Mr. Roosevelt has to say possesses extraordinary interest, and will be eagerly awaited by persons of all shades of political opinion.——Walter Sichel's "Some Phases in Fiction" in *The Living Age* for October 11, touches a subject of perennial interest and treats it freshly and justly.——"What Women Are Doing," edited by the women readers of *The Designer*, increases in interest, the paragraphs this month recounting several odd and original ways by which some women make a living.——Rudyard Kipling's story in *Everybody's*, "The Comprehension of Private Copper," expresses the attitude of certain expatriated Britishers settled in the Cape country who became Boer sympathizers because of English neglect of their interests. The episode is highly dramatic, told in Kipling's best vein; a brief picturesque story which reminds one of the vigor of his earlier tales.——*The Kindergarten Magazine* for November is, as usual, crisp with fresh educational matter.——One of the most charming series of articles for its combination of practicality and literary interests is that running in *The Delineator* under the title "The House that Jack and Jill Built." The workmen they employed to carry out their ideas early gave the pair up as wildly insane, but the results achieved throughout the house are delightful nevertheless. From cellar to garret originality shows itself in everything, and the prospective house builder will do well to profit by the suggestions here offered.——President William DeWitt Hyde, of Bowdoin College, opens the November *Atlantic* with an impressive discussion of The New Ethics—the moral laws and safeguards of our race, the spirit of which all laws are but the symbolic impression.——In the Editor's Study of *Harper's* for November, Mr. Alden refutes the idea that American literature is on the decline, and that there is no demand for good books.